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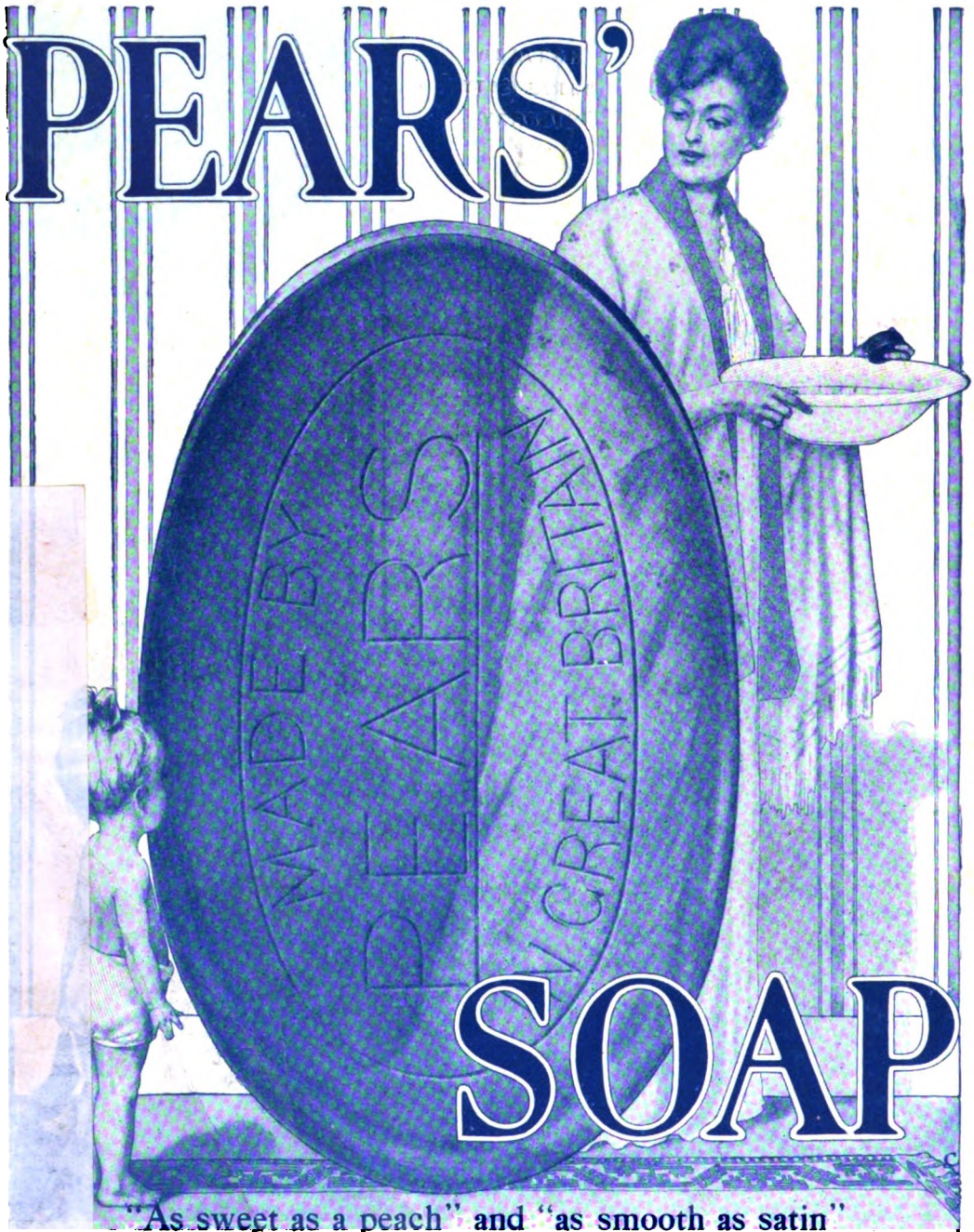

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The Central West Wants to Make Seaports of its Cities

And the Nation Looks to Roosevelt for More Miracles

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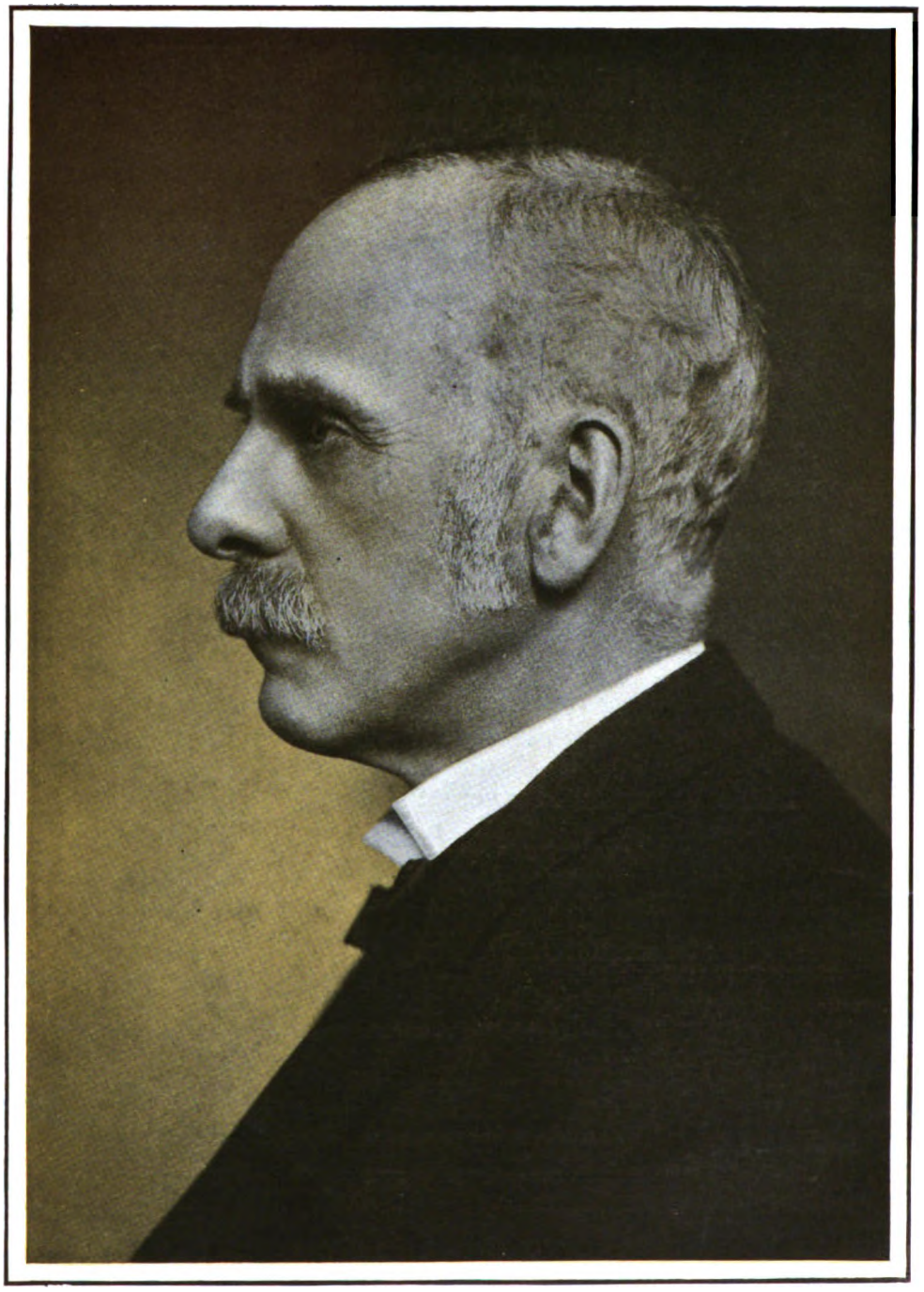

LESLIE M. SHAW
Secretary of the Treasury

See page 83

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The World To-Day

VOLUME XII JANUARY, 1907 NUMBER 1

"To Hell With Such a Law"

YOU probably think that an anarchist, or a condemned criminal said these words. Therein you are mistaken. They were spoken by a member of the United States Senate in a public address at Chicago. It is not hard to guess his name; it is Tillman.

You may possibly suppose that this representative of a great state, who has sworn to observe the Constitution of the United States, was referring to some bit of legislation of which he did not approve.

Quite the contrary. He was referring to the Fifteenth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States.

That is a Senator's solution of the negro problem: curse the Constitution.

* * *

Forty years ago northern optimists thought that the negro question had been solved by making slaves into citizens. To-day we find the problem farther from an answer than ever. It is partly the negro's fault; it is partly the fault of that traditionless class of southerners whom Senator Tillman and his kind represent. To the old slave-holding families the negroes are a responsibility. But these families are no longer the political leaders of the South. They have been replaced by representatives of the formerly uninfluential commercial class to whom the negro is a political and social menace rather than a responsibility.

Having disfranchised the negro, they have made the race question their political stock in trade.

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Race hatred has now its propagandism. Throughout the country before universities, Chautauquas and meetings held for the purpose of raising money to support charitable organizations, is preached the evangel of hate.

It is even more than propaganda. In a recent number of this magazine John Temple Graves stated that he believes that the antipathy between the white and the black has been imbedded in the human heart by God himself. Is race hatred, then, to be made into a religion?

* * *

The North has conceded to the South the right to settle the race question in the South. But that is no reason why men from the South should endeavor to stir up race hatred in the North.

The negro question will not be solved by arousing hatred where such hatred does not exist.

The North sympathizes with the South, and as far as it is permitted, will help the South undo the mistakes and crimes of the reconstruction period. For the most part it is even ready to admit that taking the uneducated negro out of politics is a wise move. It finds itself confronted with the problem of the negro criminal and knows better than it did forty years ago the difficulty of a situation it once thought could be met by proclamations.

But it protests against having the negro question handled by demagogues or by any one else who would make money by preaching race hatred.

* * *

The negro question has ceased to be sectional, and simultaneously we have lost our faith in panaceas. But just because there is no solution for the negro question in sight, must the entire nation learn patience, regard for law, and distrust of loud-mouthed agitators, no matter what official position they may occupy.

We shall find a way out. Just what that way will be no man to-day can tell. But this much we know. It will not be along the line of war between the races or of treating the Fifteenth Amendment as Senator Tillman advises.

Industrial and moral training, rigid enforcement of wise laws, sane counsel, the repudiation of men like Tillman, and the tolerant coöperation of the real leaders of the negroes with the real leaders of the whites—these point out the line of hope. These, and time and patience.

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FRANKLIN MURPHY—THE GUARDIAN OF THE OLD SOLDIER

Ex-Governor Murphy of New Jersey is President of the Board of Managers of the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers. This institution is described by Dr. H. S. Burrage on page 45

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W. E. BURGHARDT DU BOIS—THE SPOKESMAN OF NEGRO IDEALISM

Professor Du Bois differs from Booker Washington in emphasizing the negro's need of higher education as well as industrial training. His book, "The Souls of Black Folk," is a powerful appeal for the rights of the negro as a man rather than as a workman

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JOHN E. WILKIE, CHIEF OF THE UNITED STATES SECRET SERVICE

Mr. Wilkie does not look the detective of literature, but the efficiency of the Secret Service Bureau is everywhere recognized. See page 36

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LILLIAN M. N. STEVENS—THE LEADER IN WOMAN'S FIGHT FOR THE HOME
Mrs. Stevens, as President of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, has succeeded to much of the influence of the late Frances Willard

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

The Nation

The President's Message

The first message of President Roosevelt to the special session of the Fifty-ninth Congress was a voluminous document, discussing in detail an extraordinary number of matters of import to the welfare of the nation. In reading it one can not help speculating as to what feelings it would arouse in the souls of the fathers of the Constitution. The federal government has been increasingly compelled to consider economic matters because of their political importance. But President Roosevelt recommends legislation which is political only in the most indirect fashion. Lynching, labor injunctions, the color line in education, the eight-hour day, the withdrawal of coal lands from settlement, state supervision of trusts, a tax on incomes, an increasingly heavy tax on inheritances for the purpose of preventing the rise of great fortunes, the scientific training of farmers, marriage and divorce, race suicide and irrigation are given quite as much attention as our relations with Japan and Cuba. The tariff is not treated, if indeed mentioned, and the Panama situation was left for treatment in a second message.

The Tax on Inheritances

There is no denying that the President's attitude toward great fortunes is one of genuine apprehension. He makes a sincere attempt to meet a danger that, since the will of Marshall Field with its creation of an endowment fund for his grandchildren, has been recognized by every thoughtful man, whether he be rich or poor. The President realizes the difficulty which lies in any hasty legislation, but he believes that in the near future our national legislators should enact a law providing for a graduated inheritance tax by which a steadily increasing rate of duty "should be paid upon all moneys and other valuables coming by gift or bequest to any individual or corporation" In his judgment "the pro rata of the tax should increase very heavily with the increase of

WAIT JUST A MOMENT, MR. PRESIDENT
W. L. Evans, in the Cleveland *Leader*

WORKING THE BIG STICK AT BOTH ENDS
Bradley, in the Chicago *Daily News*

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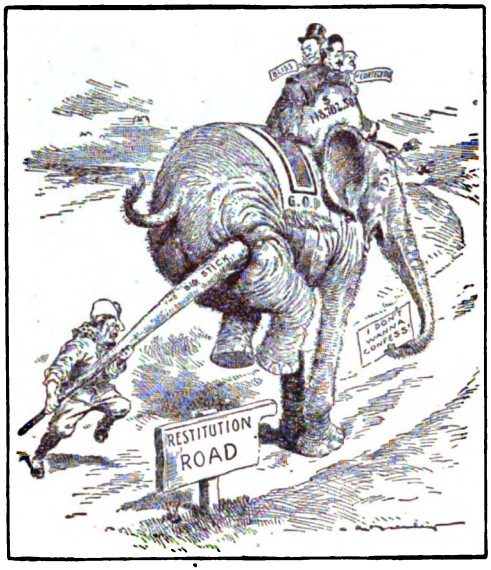


BALKY
Macauley, in the New York *World*

the amount left to any one individual after a certain point has been reached." He believes that this tax should be gradually imposed, and shows by precedents that Congress has the right to levy such a tax. It is interesting in this connection to note that the first of these precedents was set by the act of July 6, 1797. The President can plead the fathers!

Currency Reform

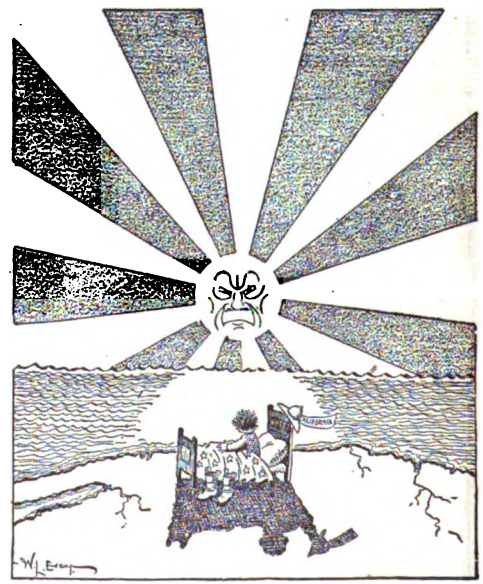
Another matter upon which Congress is certainly bound to act in the immediate future, is currency reform. President Roosevelt is rather non-committal at this point, but quotes as among possibly feasible plans worthy of consideration, that of Secretary Shaw. The essential features of this plan have been approved by bankers and include the so-called credit currency. The President's uncertainty as regards the best plan at this particular point is a tribute to his caution, and incidentally to his experience as a stockman in the West. But he evidently means to let men of finance answer questions of finance. This caution as to a practical matter, the complications of which are very obvious, is striking when compared with the President's plea for constitutional amendment giving Congress the right to regulate divorce, and his short but vigorous homily on the necessity of a high birth-rate.

The Monroe Doctrine

As we should expect, the message touches upon the relations of the United States with Cuba and South America, particular attention being given to Secretary Root's trip in the interest of removing misunderstandings of the Monroe Doctrine. A section of peculiar significance is the President's approving quotation of Doctor Drago's statement of the traditional policy of the government as to its relation to the American republics. In this connection it is gratifying to see that the President urges that citizenship be conferred upon Porto Ricans and that the Philippine tariff should be either lowered or abolished. It will be remembered that Congress refused to pass a bill to this effect at its last session.

The Japanese and California

By all odds the most sensational section of his message is that dealing with the Japanese situation on the Pacific Coast. It is also to be noticed that in the very nature of the case this is a matter upon which the President could have had the least opportunity for mature consideration. His position is unmistakable. After laying down general principles of honor which should govern the relations of great governments, he insists that justice shall



CALIFORNIA'S BAD DREAM
Thinks he sees a sunrise in the west
W. L. Evans in the Cleveland *Leader*

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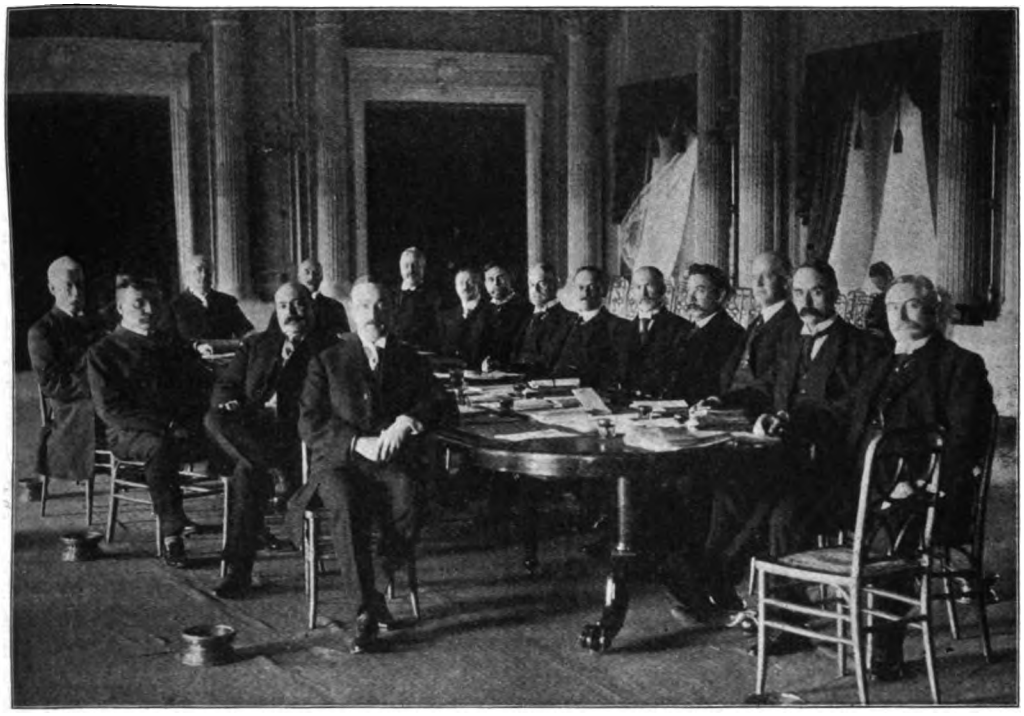

THE CURRENCY COMMISSION OF THE AMERICAN BANKERS' ASSOCIATION

This commission reported in favor of a flexible currency system

The members, seated from left to right, are: James B. Forgan, James T. Talbert, James R. Branch, Sol Wexler, A. B. Hepburn, Arthur Reynolds, Frank A. Vanderlip, Chas. A. Conant, W. V. Cox, Luther Drake, Festus J. Wade, Robert Wardrop, Chas. H. Huttig, E. F. Swiney, John L. Hamilton, Jas. A. McCord

be done all immigrants who come "under the law." The hostility to the Japanese he insists is "sporadical," "limited to a very few places," discreditable to us as a people and fraught with the gravest consequences. President Roosevelt praises Japan and the Japanese, calls attention to the assistance rendered by the Japanese Red Cross to the sufferers of San Francisco, and maintains that "to shut them out from the public schools is a wicked absurdity." Wherever the federal government has power, he states that it will deal summarily with any small body of wrongdoers who may bring shame upon the great mass of their innocent and right-thinking fellows. He recommends that an act be specifically passed providing for the naturalization of Japanese, that a law be passed enabling the President to enforce the rights of aliens under treaties, and throws down the gauntlet to California by declaring that all of the forces, military and civil, of the United States which he may lawfully employ may be used to insure justice to the Japanese.

Is the President's Position Justifiable?

Whatever may be the sentiment of San Francisco under the manipulation of organized labor, there can be no doubt that the sentiment of the nation at large is with President Roosevelt in his insistence upon the enforcement of treaty rights. There are nice legal questions involved here, for it is not altogether clear just what power the federal government has to compel a municipality or a legislature to regard treaty rights. But the equity of the case is self-evident. If the federal government enters into treaty relationship guaranteeing any nation the rights enjoyed by the most friendly power, it is impossible to hold for a minute that any state, much less any city, has the right to limit such rights. It is well to bear in mind further in this connection that the recent action of San Francisco in applying a state law against Mongolian school children to Japanese, is simply one phase of a general anti-Japanese policy which has been systematically agitated on the Pacific Coast for the past

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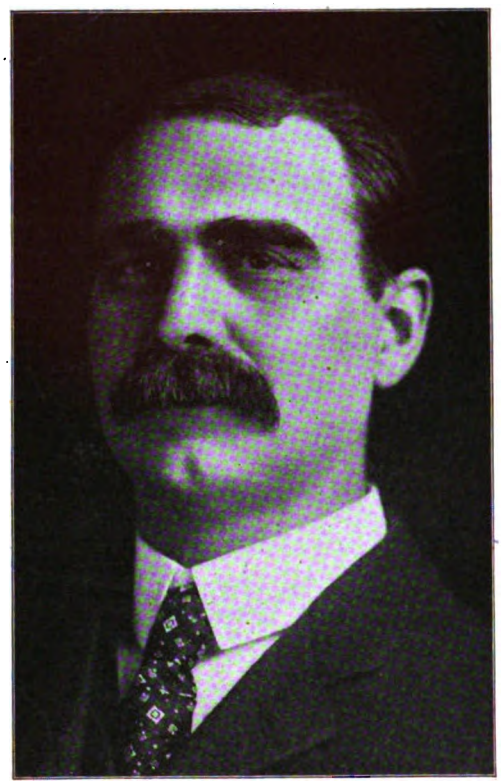

SENATOR L. W. LEWIS
Author of the resolution introduced into the Iowa legislature calling upon Congress to formulate and propose an amendment providing for the choice of senators by popular vote

two years. It is time that the labor leaders of California were made to realize that California is a part of the United States, and that the entire nation has interests at stake on the Pacific Coast which make it imperative that the Japanese question be treated not as of local interest, but one which affects the conscience and the peace of mind of the nation at large.

What as to Japan?

But while one must recognize the justice of the President's main contention, his threat of force seems gratuitous. The courts have not yet passed upon the constitutionality of the law under which San Francisco is acting, there is no rebellion or serious disorder in California, and the governor of that state has made no suggestion of an inability to maintain an order which is not even threatened. The President may be playing a deep diplomatic game. His vigorous promise of intervention has certainly pleased Japan, and if, as has been surmised, a treaty is in preparation looking to setting limits upon the immigration of Japanese coolies into the United States and of American workmen into Japan, it may have been dictated by wise policy. It is to be hoped that such a treaty is to be something of the near future. Any one who has watched the recent aggressive policy of Japan and seen her high-handed appropriation of Korea, and the anti-foreign effect of her tutelage of China, can not look without apprehension at the inundation of Japanese now sweeping into the Philippines and Hawaii.

The President on a Tour of Inspection

The visit of the President to Panama, where he personally observed the work of digging the canal, is pictured on another page. The details of the trip are of less importance, however, than the fact that the trip itself was made. For the first time in its history a President of the United States was for more than a few hours on the high seas, out of reach of the government. Thanks, however, to the wireless telegraph, Mr. Roosevelt was in constant touch with Washington and, constructively at least, was in his office. The real significance of the journey is the evidence it gives that the administration is vitally interested in the efficient prosecution of the canal. There have been of late severe strictures placed upon both the method of procedure at the Isthmus and the results there obtained. Especially is this true of the publication by Lindon W. Bates, an engineer of standing. If Congress will give the administration reasonable liberty the canal will be dug rapidly. If, however, Congress persists in handicapping the President in his efforts, our position at Panama may become worse than that of France itself, so far as actual results are concerned. We do not fear graft or corruption on the part of those in charge of the work, but if the nation tries to conduct affairs in the style of a town meeting it will be impossible to maintain any consistent policy through the series of years which the gigantic task demands. It is impossible to believe that the President was deceived by a false show of activity. We have a higher respect for the commission and particularly for Mr.

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Shonts, to say nothing of the President himself, than to believe any of the "yellow" stories which have appeared in the press from amateur investigators or minor officials.

The Interstate Senatorial Convention

The past month has been rich in conventions, but none of them was more politically radical than that held in Des Moines, December 5. Its purpose was to bring about the election of United State senators by popular vote. Twelve states were represented in its sessions: California, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Louisiana, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, Oregon, South Dakota and Wisconsin. Acceptances to the invitation of Governor Cummins to appoint delegates had been received from the governors of eighteen other states, as follows: Kansas, Kentucky, Minnesota, Montana, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, Texas, Washington, West Virginia, Wyoming, Georgia, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia and New York. Six of these states—Kansas, Montana, Tennessee, Texas, Utah and Virginia—had appointed delegates. Owing, however, to a number of circumstances, not the least among which was the fact that delegates had to pay their own railroad fare and all contingent expenses, the attendance was not so large as anticipated.

Its Action

The movement was inaugurated as thoroughly and effectively, however, as though all of the thirty states which had accepted the invitation had been fully represented. Under the name of the Interstate Senatorial Convention permanent organization was effected, with Congressman Jesse B. Strode of Nebraska president, the next meeting to be held, some time this winter, at his call. The following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That while this convention would much prefer that Congress should submit to the several states a proposed amendment to the Constitution for the election of senators by direct vote of the people, so that the states might pass upon it as a single question, yet, inasmuch as the Senate persistently refuses to submit such an amendment, it therefore earnestly recommends that the legislatures of the several states do, in pursuance of Article V of the Constitution of the United States, make application to Congress to call a convention for the purpose of proposing amendments to the Constitution of the United States. Be it further

Resolved, That the president and secretary of this convention be and the same are hereby instructed to transmit duly certified copies of these resolutions to the chairmen of the national committee and of the several state committees of the two leading political parties, also to the governors of the respective states, to each member of Congress, and to the President. That in transmitting the copies to the governors of the states, the president and secretary of this convention shall enclose a letter, urging each of them to lay these resolutions before the legislature of his state.

An executive committee was appointed by President Strode, consisting of the following active workers: Thomas A. Cheshire of Iowa, Thomas J. Kernan of Louisiana, Frank C. Goudy of Colorado, W. R. Ellis of Oregon and C. M. Kimbrough of Indiana. The committee was empowered to prepare an address to the legislature of each state that has not heretofore acted on the subject, requesting the adoption of such resolutions as may be presented from time to time by the Interstate Senatorial Convention, to the end that the election of United States senators by direct vote of the people may soon be an accomplished fact.

IS A "FIREMAN'S UNION" A GOOD THING?
McCutcheon in the Chicago *Tribune*
(Apropos of the formation of unions in the city service departments)

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The Temperance War in Kansas

Weary of evasions of the law through the "fine" system, which has heretofore rendered ineffective all efforts upon the part of state officials to stop the sale of liquor, Attorney-General Coleman of Kansas has struck at the root of the trouble with ouster suits against the mayors of four of the principal cities: Mayor Finlay Ross of Wichita, Mayor F. W. O'Donnell of Junction City, Mayor A. D. Kirkwood of Pittsburg and Mayor Peter Everhardy of Leavenworth. There is said to be a case against Mayor Goodlander of Fort Scott ready to file, but for the present tied up on account of political conditions. The mayor of Atchison may be the next one proceeded against, if Topeka gossip be true. Mayor W. W. Rose, of Kansas City, Kansas, who, with the county attorney of Wyandotte county was ousted more than a year ago, was the first municipal executive to feel the hand of the state administration. Since his ousting Mayor Rose has been reëlected, forced to resign, and fined by the Supreme Court of Kansas for contempt in seeking to carry out the policies for which he was first ousted. The charges brought against the mayors figuring in the present ouster proceedings are the same as those brought against Mayor Rose; those of coöperating with the "jointists" in breaking the law, through an understanding by which the liquor sellers were allowed to continue in business upon the payment of a monthly fine. Mayor Rose and at least two of the mayors now subject to ouster proceedings were elected upon campaign promises of "wet" administrations. Attorney-General Coleman and officers of the State Temperance Union, who have been furnishing him with evidence against the mayors, threaten to oust every municipal executive in Kansas if the "fine" system does not go out of use. If these measures are not effective, it is said, proceedings to disincorporate cities which refuse to enforce the prohibitory law will be undertaken. The effects of this crusade upon the part of the state administration have been numerous official "joint smashings" in Kansas City, Kansas, a stricter enforcement of the law in some of the smaller cities, and a considerable agitation for the resubmission of the "prohibition question" to the voters of the state. Sentiment is still overwhelmingly in favor of the present law, but the agitation in border cities like Atchison, Leavenworth, Kansas City, Kansas, Pittsburg and Wier City, whose residents can step over the line into Missouri to buy liquor, may yet result in an effort to pass in the state legislature at its January session, a resolution resubmitting the question to the voters at a special election.

Second-class Mail Matter

Legislation of the utmost importance to come before Congress during its present session is that looking toward an increase in the rate of postage for second-class mail from 1 to 4 cents per pound. The ground for this increase is stated to be the deficit in the postal service. But the deficit is not caused by such mail. It is due to a variety of causes, chief among which are the rural free delivery, which costs the government close to thirty million dollars a year, and the abuse of the franking privilege. The postoffice should be paid by the other departments of the government for the service which it is rendering them. We believe in the rural free delivery, and we believe it is the duty of the government to maintain it, but the abuse of the franking system by our Congressmen, either by sending huge packages through the mail or, after the fashion of Congressman Mann, by the use of the mails for personal political purposes, should be prevented by law. Another, though less obvious, source of the deficit is the method of allotting contracts for carrying the mail to the railroads. That method at present involves the making of a contract on the basis of the number of tons of mail carried during a certain number of weeks. The charges for such services are not only higher than those paid by the express companies, but during those weeks in which the tariff rate is being fixed, the weight of mail matter is said to be very much increased by the shipping back and forth between certain points of franked matter. To increase the rate of second-class mail would mean simply that the people would have to pay more for their magazines. As it is, every copy of a magazine sent through the mails pays from 1 to 2 cents a month postage. If the proposed increased rate

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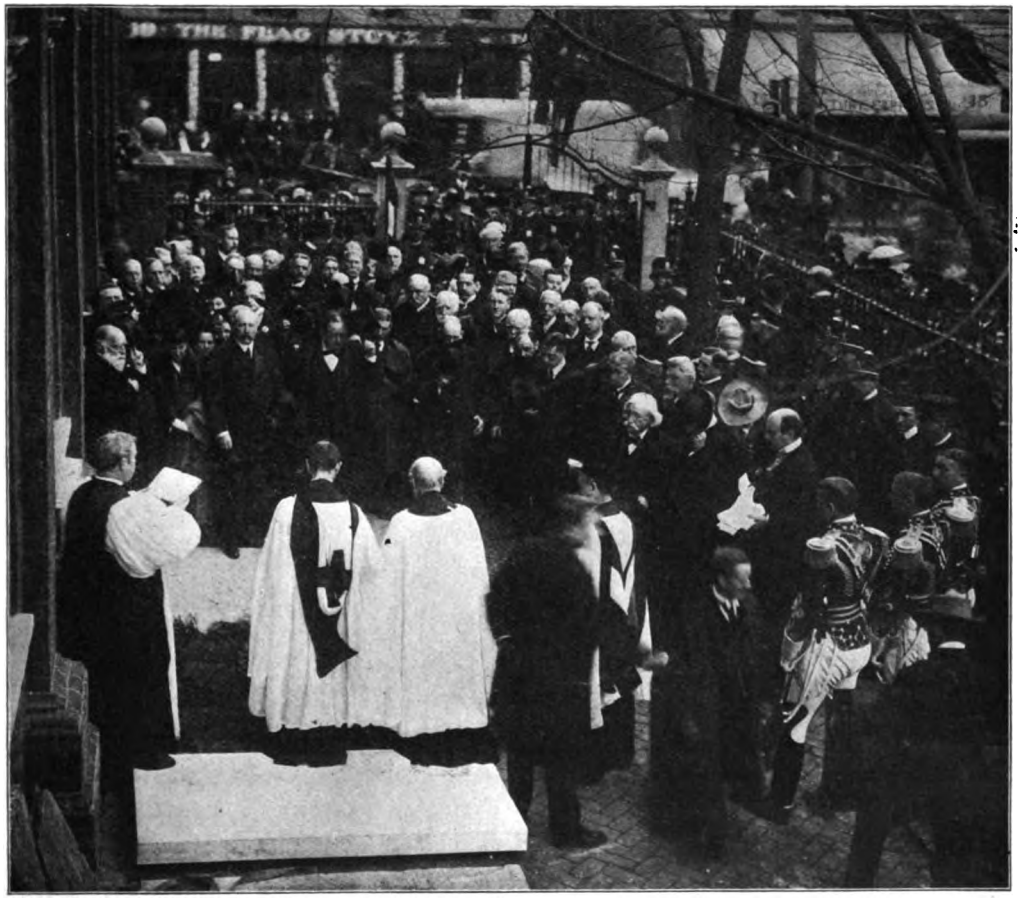

THE REBURIAL OF JAMES WILSON, SIGNER OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE
In Christ Church graveyard, Philadelphia

were made it would pay four times as much, and this would have to come out of the subscriber. Far better than any such legislation would be the honest administration of existing regulations, the correction of the franking and contract systems, and as Secretary Cortelyou now says, a juster charge on the part of the railways.

Philadelphia Honors a Patriot a Long Time Dead

Philadelphia has been in the public eye considerably during the past year and some of its performances in the political field have partaken of the tragical-comic. Mayor Weaver's despondency after his orgie of reform has not tended to deepen the respect in which the nation holds the city. It is therefore all the more a matter of justice to report that if Philadelphia can not pay respect to living champions of good government, it can at least afford honorable burial to one of the colonial patriots who has been dead so long as to make it possible to do him honor. On November 22 the remains of James Wilson, a signer of the Declaration of Independence and a man who played a prominent rôle in the creation of the United States of America, were taken from his grave in North Carolina and were buried imposingly in the graveyard of Christ Church in Philadelphia. Any such honor, however belated, is acceptable and it is to be hoped the reformers of Philadelphia will take courage. A hundred years from now they too may be honorably buried. In the meantime they seem to be suffering the fate of most patriots who do not die opportunely.

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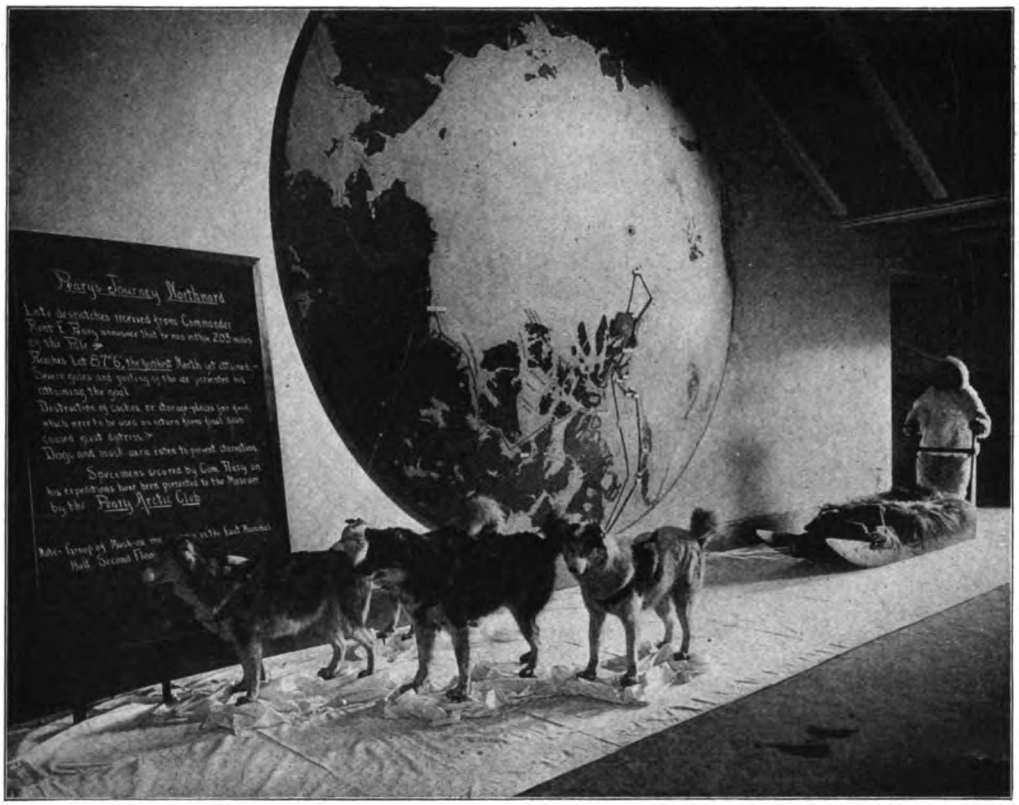

MAKING PEARY'S TRIP REAL IN A MUSEUM

Farthest North

By a distance of thirty-five miles Commander Robert E. Peary has advanced nearer to the North Pole than any previous explorers, reaching latitude 87° 6′. Within a year, having sailed from America July 15, 1905, in the good ship Roosevelt, he has also discovered a new island near the one hundredth meridian and explored some fifty miles along the coast line of Grant Land, hitherto unvisited by any explorer. Mr. Peary states that the reason he could not go farther north still was the coldness of the season and the impassable ice, which was in some places fifty feet thick. The vessel was left in winter quarters—only Doctor Nansen's Fram has gone nearer the pole — and Commander Peary started in February on sledges across the ice. He took 120 dogs with him, but only forty remained alive when he came back to his ship. Many had been used for food, provisions having been exhausted. Mr. Peary has not abandoned the hope of yet reaching still farther north.

Foreign Affairs

China and Opium

It looks as if the awakening of China would be so thorough as actually to afford a lesson in morals. On the matter of exporting opium, she evidently means to arouse other nations to action. An imperial edict, just issued, declares that the cultivation and the use of opium in China must cease within ten years. Careful provision is made for its gradual elimination from Chinese products. Each year, under penalty of confiscation, one-tenth of the ground now used for the growth of the poppy plant must be used for other purposes, and no new ground can be devoted to its cultivation. A register is to be kept of all persons using opium and of the amount consumed. Those over sixty

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years of age are permitted to continue using it, but all others must reduce their use of it twenty per cent annually. It is interesting to note the provision made in regard to those holding official and public positions. With evident recognition of the value of example in high places, a definite date is required for the abandonment of the habit. Opium dens are to be closed within six months, and physicians must render assistance to those addicted to the use of the drug by gratuitous prescriptions or at cost price. Anti-opium societies are to be established, and the diplomats are requested to arrange with their respective governments for termination of the export of the drug within ten years. This venerable nation, now that it has started on a cause of reform, is doing nothing by halves!

Fraud in Russia Famine Relief

The famine conditions in some districts in Russia are increasingly bad, many peasants being compelled to exist on pigweed and hay. To aggravate the situation, the relief appropriations from the government have been put to a fraudulent use. The Czar has appointed a committee to investigate charges against Assistant Minister of the Interior Gurko and others for conspiracy to defraud. It appears that a contract was made by Gurko for the delivery by January 14 of thirty-six million pounds of wheat by a Swede named Lidval, who has been paid in advance more than $400,000. Food paid for at high prices has been found unfit for use when it reached the starving peasants. Transportation facilities are also inadequate for relief measures, districts near those suffering from famine having an abundant supply, which can not be conveyed to those in need.

Reform Measures for the Peasants

There seems to be a decided effort to improve the condition of the peasants. A ukase was issued November 25 permitting them to abandon the communal system and become individual freeholders. The oppression which resulted from the establishment of the communes upon the liberation of the serfs in 1861 has increased greatly during the reign of the present emperor, and any release therefrom will be some mitigation of the burdens under which the Russian peasant suffers. Local officials, however, will unfortunately still have the power largely to interpret this new law as they see fit. Another law, promulgated November 29, permits peasants to mortgage their lands for money to make improvements, purchase implements or buy more land. This provision safeguards the borrowers from usurious money-lenders, by the condition that the money shall be obtained only from the government or the agrarian banks.

Other Russian Reforms

The demand for shorter working hours has been met by a law ordering a ten-hour day for clerks in stores and offices and a fifteen-hour day in restaurants and saloons. Employees under seventeen years of age are to be given two hours' rest at noon and three hours a day for attendance at schools. A law extending like privileges to factories and industrial establishments is promised. A Sunday-closing law has also been promulgated by the emperor, providing for the closing of factories and stores on Sundays and on the twelve great holidays of the Russian Church, except in such industries as can not be closed without public injury. An important reform has been instituted by the decision of the minister of justice that in future persons accused of political crimes must be tried by the ordinary civil tribunals and by the regular methods.

The English House of Lords

The debate on the Education Bill in the House of Lords has reached a point where all hopes of a compromise between it and the government appear to have been given up. The amendments made in the upper house have completely changed the tenor of the bill so that it will be impossible for the Liberal leaders to accept it. It is a fresh instance of the obstructive policy adopted by the bishops of the Church of England toward reform measures of importance. Dr. Fairbairn is quoted as saying that "the sooner they are cleared out of it [the House of Lords] the better." Certain it is that the eventual outcome will be either the abolition or the reconstruction of the upper house. It

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is also probable that the attempt to force the teaching of the Church catechism upon the common schools will result in a decision to exclude all religious teaching, and an adoption of a secular system of instruction. It is but fair to the Bishops of Hereford and Ripon to say that they cautioned their brethren against action which would provoke a revolutionary spirit, lest it should cause their own undoing. The House of Commons, which holds the public purse, can refuse any money for sectarian teaching, if it so chooses.

Changed Status of the Congo Free State Question

By the granting of concessions to a group of American capitalists for the development of mines, railways and rubber cultivation in the Congo Free State, it is probable that the attitude of the United States government toward intervention in regard to the atrocities therein, may be materially altered. It is stated that even Secretary Root sees the matter in a new light. There is nothing like business to arouse interest in a people's wrongs! The trade relations of the United States with the Free State may give a basis for interference. The British government is also freshly aroused and Earl Grey, Secretary for Foreign Affairs, recently informed a delegation soliciting his attention to the inhumanities there practiced, that the government would take decisive action if negotiations with Belgium, now pending, did not result satisfactorily. On December 6, M. Jansen, the radical leader in the Belgian Chamber of Deputies, suggested that Belgium call an international conference for the protection of the natives of the Congo State. It really begins to look as if something would be done. Public opinion works slowly, but it works none the less.

Spain's Cabinet Changes

Within a week Spain has had two ministerial changes. The Dominguez cabinet resigned on November 28, after being in office less than five months. Señor Moret y Prendergast was summoned by the king to form a new ministry. He did so, although the portfolio of worship and education — the most difficult to fill under the present circumstances — was left vacant. Hardly had this reconstructed cabinet been approved by King Alfonso, before Count Romanones resigned as minister of justice, followed on December 3 by Premier Moret. General Montero Rios, who resigned the premiership in 1905, was next asked to form another new cabinet, but declined because of the divergencies of opinion in the Liberal party. Still another ministry has been formed, with Marquis de Armijo as its head. It is doubtful if any other European country can equal Spain in the frequency of cabinet changes. Since May, 1902, there have been no less than 114 prime ministers. The present trouble is accentuated by the proposed legislation in regard to education and religious associations.

Anarchy in Morocco

Continued disturbance in Morocco, particularly in the neighborhood of Tangier, and several cases of molestation of foreigners, have induced France and Spain to send war-ships and troops to Tangier, for use in emergency. The Algeciras treaty confers this right upon these countries, and they have considered it wise to exercise it without waiting for the formal assent of the powers signatory to the treaty. Great Britain has officially notified both France and Spain of her approval of their action, and of her purpose not to interfere. Germany also has assured them of her assent to their course. Raisuli, the noted bandit, expelled the tribesmen from Arzilla when the Moroccan authorities were unable to do it, and because of his strength and influence, the government appealed to him to restore order. But the European governments propose to have order without his aid.

Germanizing the Poles

Race hatred between Poles and Germans is daily growing more intense. The insistence by the German government upon the use of the German language in giving religious instruction to the Polish children in the schools has resulted in the placing of thousands of children under "school arrest," they being detained for several hours after each session for refusing to answer the catechetical questions

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ENGLISH SCHOOL TEACHERS VISITING AMERICA

They have been sent here by Sir Alfred Moseley to study our school methods with a view to improving the English system of teaching. They are: Prof. William Fellows, Miss H. Williamson, S. Clegg, Edwin Jenkins and J. B. Elwell

in German. The insurrection is no small one. Some forty-five thousand children have been on "strike." The sudden death of Archbishop Stablewski of Posen, who has defended the rights of the Poles, bodes ill to their cause. It is probable that a German non-sympathizer will be appointed as his successor. An impassioned protest by Henryk Sienkiewicz, the Polish novelist, was published in the British and French newspapers. He does not hesitate to accuse the German Emperor of cruel persecutions toward these aliens who have been subjected to his authority. And, as if to make matters even more unbearable, the universities in Russian Poland are to be removed.

A Practical Joke on German Militarism

The estimation in which the people of the German empire as a whole regard the flamboyant militarism of their government is to be seen in their endeavor to raise money to give a pension to Voigt. This shoemaker, it will be recalled, after having been released from prison, found himself persecuted by the police so that he could not get honorable employment. He therefore perpetrated one of the cleverest and most daring pieces of rascality of recent years. Buying an officer's uniform in an old-clothes shop, he put himself at the head of a squad of a dozen soldiers who took him for a genuine officer, placed the mayor of the town of Koepenick, near Berlin, under arrest, and in the name of the emperor proceeded to loot the city treasury. He was subsequently arrested, put on trial and condemned. So great was the national enjoyment of his performances, and so great was the sympathy with him because of the treatment accorded him by the police that he was given a sentence of only something like four years, and there is every likelihood that when he is released he will find a comfortable pension waiting for him, raised by public subscription. The gov-

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ernment naturally takes the matter seriously, but if it is wise it will see in it a very clear indication of the impatience of the Germans with the prevailing cult of the army and of the police. Germany is far enough from being a republic.

The Drama

A Home for Grand Opera

The height of the season has been fittingly marked by the inauguration of the Manhattan Opera House, a playhouse magnificent in proportions, dedicated solely to the production of grand opera. A special company of European artists, gathered together by impresario Oscar Hammerstein, has rendered French and Italian grand opera with marked popularity, competing successfully against the more brilliant and better established coterie under Conried's banner at the Metropolitan Opera House. This surfeit of grand opera, with such artists as Eames, Sembrich, Scotti, Fremstad and Louise Homer, and with the first production in America of the Giordano "Fedora," and Hector Berlioz's "Damnation of Faust," has made the month a memorable one in dramatic history. The first production in years of Gounod's "Romeo et Juliette" saw the American début of three artists, Geraldine Farrar, Charles Rousseliere, and M. Simard, who are destined to win permanent distinction in this country. Not so much may be said of the much-heralded American singer, Bessie Abbott, whose voice is colorless, though she imparts youth and grace to her rôles. Puccini's "Madam Butterfly," sung in English by the Savage Opera Company, is generally styled a lovely and poetic work, with the charm of intimacy. In the chief rôle, Elza Szamosy, the Hungarian prima donna, has scored a marked success.

Two Real Melodramas

Two most virile examples of the long-sought wholly American play have appeared of late. Both are melodramas dealing with big, striking issues. The first, "The Daughters of Men" by Charles Klein, is a compact, fresh and strong presentation of the struggle between capital and labor, with a clear and admirable elucidation of some of the principles of socialism. The second significantly American play, dealing with a so-called national problem, is "The Man of the Hour" by George Broadhurst. It exposes the evil of graft and makes a strong plea for clean, municipal politics. The story is developed with keen wit and a poise often lacking in the purpose play. Its chief rôle, a collegian, a theorist, and a man imbued with the spirit of honest warfare, demonstrates the practicability of pure politics, and is created by Frederick Perry in the most telling work yet credited to this admirable young actor.

Plays of Yesterday and about Yesterday

Comedy of manners has been gracefully prominent in the revival of Oliver Goldsmith's "She Stoops to Conquer," presented with good results by William H. Crane and Ellis Jeffreys. It is a noteworthy, painstaking revival, acted by a uniformly excellent cast. The fine old comedy has lost none of its luster, even weighed against modern standards and present-day technic. Louis Evan Shipman's well constructed little comedy-drama, "On Parole," in a martial setting from the confederate standpoint, is a pleasing, if not wholly a superior and commanding work. It has served to feature a rising young actress, Charlotte Walker, who is developing into a comedienne of the first rank. Perhaps the most satisfying event of the month, both in technical skill and novelty in idea, is "The Road to Yesterday," by Beulah M. Dix and Evelyn G. Sutherland. It deals plausibly with the theory of reincarnation of souls, and is presented as a vivid dream, involving a love story of delicate sentiment. It is one of the few modern comedies really worth while.

Two New Women Dramatists

Two new women playwrights have suddenly and unexpectedly taken Broadway by storm. The first of these, Rachel Crothers, after beating long and patiently at the reluctant, unresponsive doors of the Rialto, won her case at the first opportunity allowed her, and elicited from the entire press unstinted praise for her little comedy of western life called

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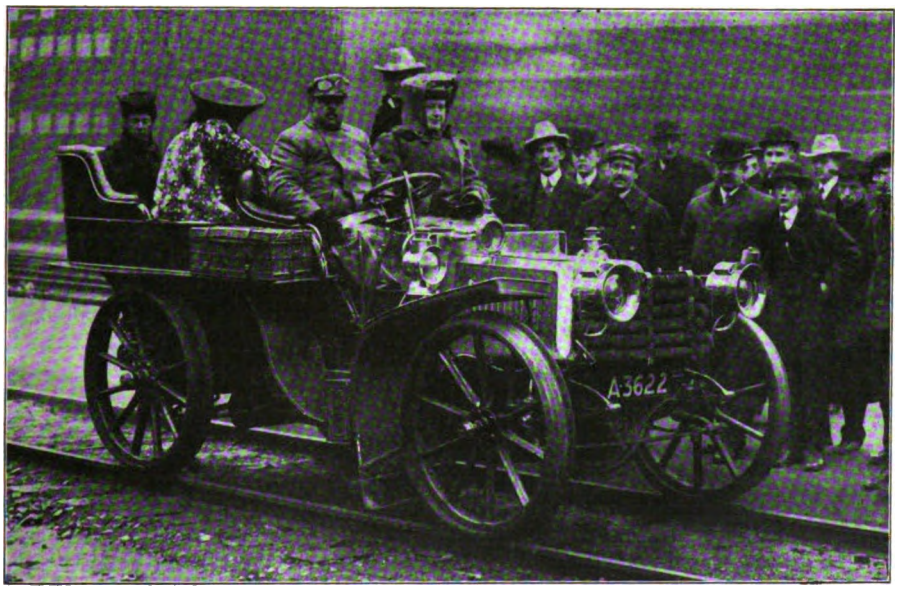
"The Three of Us." The odds are against a woman in the arena where male playwrights are usually fighting a losing game, but this woman has won. Doubly fine is the victory in the face of immeasurable, almost brutal competition. The other woman is Cora Maynard, whose first play, "The Measure of a Man," dealing with live issues — the honor of a corporation — and built with virility and understanding, might have met with even a more emphatic success if it had antedated certain plays on similar topics which already command the field.

The New Theater Again

In M. Augier's "The Son-in-Law," the New Theater secured a vehicle worthy in a measure of the purpose for which this playhouse was founded. Skilfully built, bristling with smart talk, it was shown to be a characteristic and excellent example of the modern French school of comedy. The English translation by Ethel De Koven indicated a nice understanding of values, and a good grasp of virile Anglo-Saxon. The piece gave place to Hauptmann's "Elga," the latest work of the German dramatist. It is a poetical dream play of Poland, revealing a tragedy of intense power, yet so inadequately presented, and with so little understanding of its whole significance as to clog and completely veil its meaning. The stock company has been strengthened by the addition of Chrystal Herne, who created "Elga" with a picturesque and vital suggestion of the superb power dormant in the lines of the rôle. The choice of Hauptmann's newest work shows honesty of purpose in the management, but there is still lacking that inexplicable something in stage management or personnel of the company commonly called *esprit de corps.*

Amateur Sport



CHARLES J. GLIDDEN LEAVING CHICAGO FOR MEXICO IN HIS MOTOR CAR
It is equipped with flanged wheels to run on the railroad track

The Recent Football Season

The football season of 1906 should give courage to every friend of genuinely amateur athletics. It has been shown beyond reasonable doubt that all attempts at professionalizing football are likely to fail. For one thing the game is too dangerous for men to take up as a source of livelihood, and for another it is too collegiate. The fiasco of the professional game in Chicago on Thanksgiving Day assures us one game that shall be wholly the property of men who are interested in sport for sport's sake. Whatever may be

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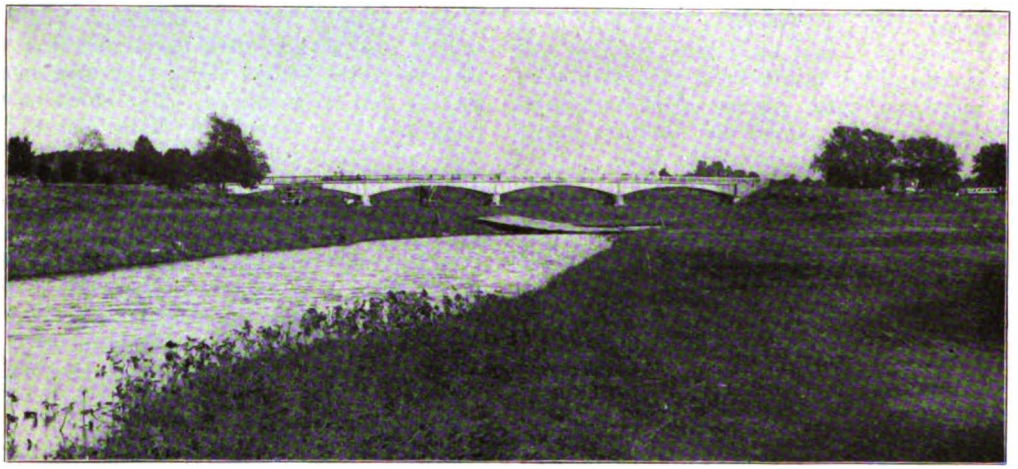
true of the "soccer" game, genuine football, both by its nature and by the new zeal of our educational institutions, is freer to-day from professional taint than ever before. The season has been critical for football in more senses than one. Had the attempts at reform proved abortive there is little doubt that many universities would have abolished the game altogether. As it is we are heartily in accord with the opinions of experts given on another page of this issue that the game under the new rules is safer, more interesting and more practical than ever before.



LAKE CARNEGIE, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY
The photograph was taken before the valley was filled with water

In the Central West

In the West the question of championship was deliberately eliminated by the action of the faculties of Wisconsin, Michigan, Chicago and Minnesota. There seems to be good ground for believing that, although subject to some modification, the present attitude will continue for at least another year. At any rate there is no champion team for 1906. Is it possible to say that there is any Middle West eleven superior to the others? By process of elimination, Michigan, because of its poor showing against teams that played its rivals, to say nothing of its defeat by Pennsylvania, must be placed in the second class. Opinions differ as to whether this is due to the style of game or to the fact that for the first time Mr. Yost was unable to gather players of the highest order. Probably the reason lies in both facts, coupled with the injury to Captain Curtis. Minnesota defeated Chicago, but critics are pretty generally agreed that it was because the game was played in a rain-storm which made it impossible for Chicago to take advantage of the new rules, and play its game. In ranking the teams it is only fair to say that Minnesota was undoubtedly the best team on the day she defeated Chicago four to two, but Chicago is entitled to at least an equality with its victor, as the best representative in the country of the game as it is to be played in the future. The Vanderbilt team is probably to be ranked next after Michigan, with Indiana as a strong rival.

In the East

In the East, Yale and Princeton seem to stand in a class together, neither team being able to score upon the other. But the athletics of the East in general, whatever may be said of the relative merits of the game in the two regions, is less satisfactory than in the Middle West. As we have already pointed out, there is no central body in the East corresponding to the Conference Committee of the "Big Nine." The distressing effects of this lack are to be seen in the squabble between Harvard and Yale relative to the officials for their annual game. If there had been a central committee to appoint

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THE ACADEMIC PROCESSION AT PRINCETON UNIVERSITY
It was headed by President Wilson and Mr. Andrew Carnegie

officials like that existing under the Conference, the public would not have seen the representatives of two great institutions settling a quarrel by an ultimatum. We do not pretend to pass upon the merits of the case. If the representatives of the two universities can not trust each other's honor, it is time that reformation began to reform.

Princeton's New Rowing Course

Lake Carnegie was formally opened on December 5, with appropriate ceremonies. Mr. Carnegie himself was present and had the pleasure of seeing the students play hockey on the lake, and the excitement of seeing one of them rescued after having broken through the thin ice. The lake itself will add beauty to the campus and to the town, and will also make it possible for Princeton to carry on aquatic sports. It has been made at a cost of about $385,000 by building a dam 650 feet across a marshy valley through which runs a small river. It is about three and one-half miles long and from four hundred to one thousand feet wide and three feet five inches to twelve feet deep. It is spanned by two bridges, each over four hundred feet in length, one of which we reproduce. The photograph, however, shows the valley before it was flooded. Mr. Carnegie in his speech referred to the "serious and delicate subject of sport," saying that aquatics have a spotless reputation.

The Religious World

Progress in Tri-Church Union

It will be recalled that in February, 1906, a conference was held at Dayton, Ohio, between representatives of the United Brethren, Methodist Protestants and Congregationalists, looking toward some sort of union. On November 21 at a meeting in Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, the report of the committee on polity was adopted, which will be presented to the general council representing the three denominations. This platform governing the polity of the union makes the unit of fellowship the local church, which is to be

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left free in its local affairs and to conduct its business in its own way. These churches are to be organized into district associations, annual conferences and national councils. The territorial limit of the first two are to be determined by a commission. The national council is to be composed of delegates lay and representative chosen by the annual conferences in proportion of one minister and one layman to every five thousand members or major fraction thereof. The union is likely to be of particular importance in securing effective ministerial service for rural and scattered congregations.

Gipsy Smith

The evangelist born in a Gipsy camp, of Gipsy parentage, has done a successful work in Great Britain, South Africa, and Australia, and is now making his sixth visit to America. He has been speaking in Tremont Temple, Boston, for a month or more, and for the last ten days the crowds who gathered to hear him could not find admission there, but had to be accommodated in overflow meetings in Lorimer Hall and Park Street church. He has been eminently successful in reaching the hearts of the people, and though some account of numbers is available—one thousand five hundred adults and nine hundred children having signed cards expressing a decision to accept the leadership of Christ — there is no possibility of estimating the amount of good accomplished. Doctor Hillis and Doctor Dawson have been coöperating with Mr. Smith. He is reported to have said that he has never found more appreciative audiences than those he has had in Boston. The simplicity and winsomeness of his address have made their own appeal to men and women. Engagements have been made for him in other cities, both East and West.

The Inter-Seminary Convention

The convention of the Inter-Seminary Branch of the Young Men's Christian Association was held in Dayton, Ohio, December 6-9. It was attended by over three hundred and fifty delegates representing nearly every theological seminary in the country. The meetings were marked by enthusiasm and deep religious feeling. The subjects treated were of practical importance, special emphasis being laid upon home and foreign missions and the decline in the number of men for the ministry. As regards the latter some interesting facts were discovered by a rising vote of the members of the convention. It was found that only about forty of the men there present had decided after leaving college to enter the ministry, and that the great majority of the men had chosen their life-work before entering college. A somewhat interesting commentary upon the situation was the fact that only about one-third of the delegates were sons of ministers. If the young men present at the convention are to be taken as fair representatives of the students for the ministry the country over, there is every reason for congratulation upon the quality of men who will be our future religious leaders. It is to be hoped that in the future the convention may submit to the various seminaries the topics for the students' conferences at least two weeks before the meeting of the convention. Preparation could then be made for discussions, and the delegates would be enabled to represent more intelligently their various institutions.

Church and State in France.

The storm which the Pope has provoked in France seems to have commenced. Monseignor Montagnini, secretary of the papal nunciature since the recall of the nuncio, was arrested December 11 upon an order expelling him from France, and conducted to the frontier. Previously his residence had been searched and his papers seized. A courtier bearing dispatches from Rome was turned back at the frontier after his documents had been confiscated. Upon interrogation in the Chamber of Deputies, Premier Clemenceau stated that the expulsion of Mgr. Montagnini was caused by his complicity with prominent priests in Paris in inciting churchgoers to rebellion. Interference by foreigners in French politics upon orders from Rome he declared not permissible. Applause greeted the declaration that conciliatory propositions had been exhausted and the onus of the matter rested with Rome. Compliance with the law of 1881 would bring peace, otherwise there must inevitably be conflict.

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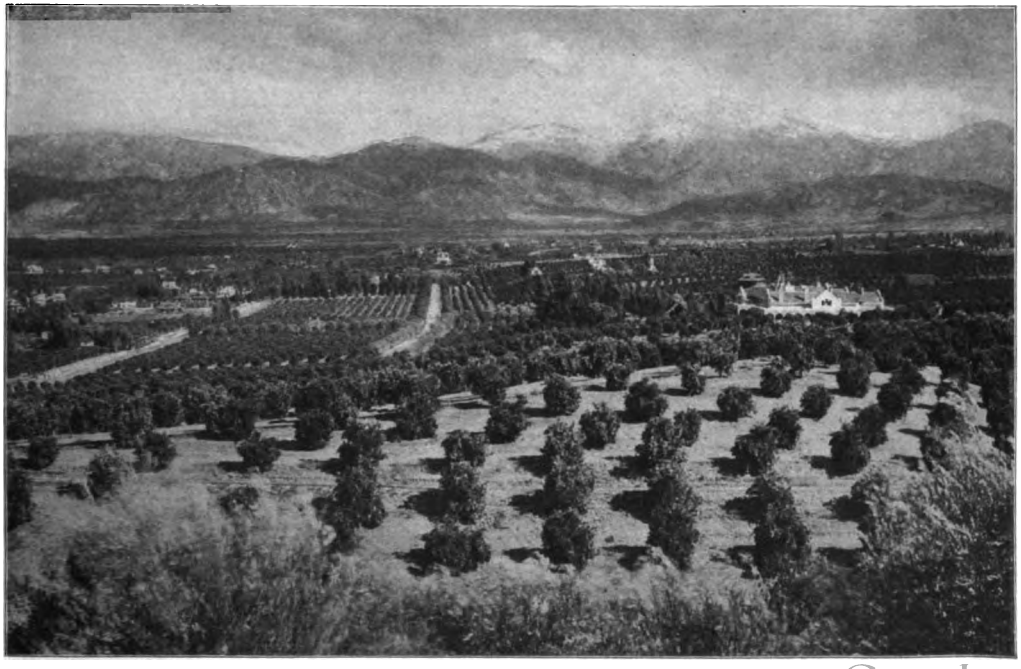
THE STORY OF THE SEEDLESS ORANGE

BY

LaSALLE A. MAYNARD

IT was about 1769 that the Franciscan Fathers, expelled from their stations in Lower California, came northward and established new missions in the coast lands from San Diego to Sacramento, bringing with them not only a zeal for souls, but also a spirit of thrift and industry and a love for the beautiful which found its expression in surrounding each mission with gardens and orchards. Vancouver, in his memoir of the coast in 1792, describes an orchard which he found at Santa Clara in which were growing apples, peaches, pears, apricots and figs, the trees all being thrifty and promising. He further details finding at the mission of San Buenaventura, apples, pears, plums, figs, oranges, grapes, peaches and pomegranates. Thus early did the region demonstrate its possibilities for the culture of fruits. Around the venerable mission building at San Gabriel may still be seen relics of an extensive orchard of plums, peaches, pomegranates, oranges and other citrus fruits, some of which are supposed to have been planted by Father Sanchez in 1804.

After this early period, however, fruit-growing in Southern California suffered a decline. The secularization of the missions seemed to have a withering effect upon the orchards and gardens, as well as upon the spiritual fruitage of the missions



ORANGE ORCHARDS NEAR REDLANDS

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themselves. At the time of General Fremont's visit to the coast in 1846, he found many things fallen into sad decay. "Little remains," he wrote, "of the orchards that were kept in high cultivation at the missions. . . . . Fertile valleys are overgrown with wild mustard; vineyards and olive orchards are decayed and neglected."

As a matter of fact in the period extending from 1840 to 1870 the orange industry of Southern California did not attain sufficient dimensions to merit serious attention. The first orange orchard planted with a view to profit may still be seen near Los Angeles. It was set out by one William Wolfskill, and consisted of two acres of seedlings. In 1862 there were only about twenty-five thousand orange trees in the State of California, two-thirds or more of them being in the vicinity of Los Angeles.

But with the coming of the railroads and, more than all, by the discovery of the navel or seedless orange, a new and remarkable era for citrus fruits was opened in Southern California. It was in 1872 that William F. Judson, American Consul at Bahia, Brazil, obtained from a native several shoots of a seedless orange found growing in a swamp on the banks of the Amazon. These shoots were sent to the Agricultural Department at Washington, where four of them subsequently fell into the hands of Mrs. Luther C. Tibbits, of Riverside, California, who was visiting the federal capital. Mrs. Tibbits brought the infant trees carefully home and her husband planted them in the garden. One died, another was chewed up by a predatory cow, but two lived and five years later produced sixteen oranges. These sixteen golden globes and their immediate successors produced results comparable only in value to the famous discovery of another kind of gold in Sutter's mill-race, and brought fame and no small fortune to their lucky owner. Being seedless, this new orange had to be produced by budding, and such was the demand for buds that the first sold commanded a price of $1 each, and later were sold for $5 dollars per dozen.

Once fairly started, the navel orange spread rapidly, and soon gained that proud and undisputed eminence among the citrus fruits which it now holds. From the one box of navels produced in 1880 the annual product has grown in twenty-six years to upward of ten million boxes, and the two trees which the cow did not chew have multiplied to over four million. The one surviving parent navel, the mother of a great industry, was transferred for safe keeping from the Tibbits garden to the courtyard of the Glenwood Hotel at Riverside in 1903, the transfer being attended with much ceremony

SPRAYING THE TREES

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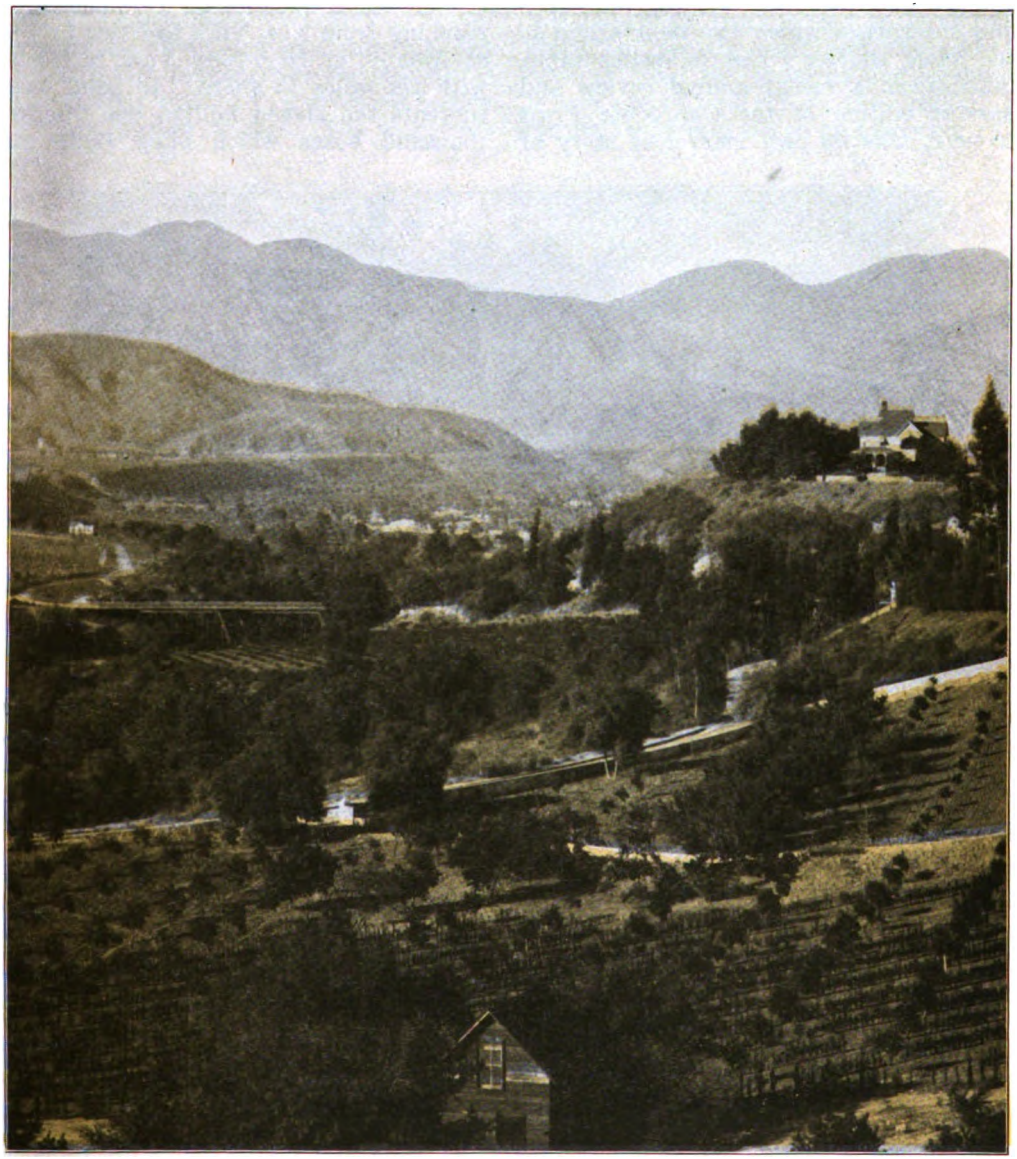

ARROYO SECO, NORTH FROM PASADENA
These orange orchards are still young

and graced by the presence of no less a personage than Theodore Roosevelt, President of the United States, who assisted in the process with the ever-useful shovel. Last year this tree bore two bushels of choice fruit, one of which found its way to the White House as a slight compensation for the service rendered. When I looked upon this mother tree a few weeks ago through its protecting fence, its boughs were bending low with a new crop.

Returning to statistics for a moment, let me quote a few figures which help to tell what the citrus fruit industry means to California to-day. Conservative estimates place the acreage of the state under orange culture alone at seventy-five thousand, chiefly in navels, while about sixteen thousand acres are devoted to lemon-growing. In Southern California alone not less than $50,000,000 are invested directly in citrus fruit culture, with

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another $50,000,000 in related industries and enterprises which owe their origin to the same source. The following table, taken from a recent annual review and harvest edition of the *California Fruit Grower,* tells its own marvelous story of expansion in the citrus industry for a period of ten years:

Season.	Carloads.	Boxes.
1894-5	7,575	2,545,200
1895-6	6,915	2,323,500
1896-7	7,350	2,469,600
1897-8	15,400	5,174,400
1898-9	10,875	3,654,000
1899-0	18,400	6,624,000
1900-1	24,900	8,964,000
1901-2	19,180	6,904,800
1902-3	23,871	8,593,560
1903-4	29,399	10,480,488
1904-5	31,422	11,105,864

At an average net value of $350 per car the domestic product for the season 1904-5, 31,422 carloads, would represent a total net income to the producers of $10,997,600. About as much more money was disbursed for cultivation, packing and freight, making the total sum for the crop nearly $20,000,000. It is not easy to grasp the full significance of these figures. A few comparisons may be a help here. Thirty-one thousand four hundred cars linked in one continuous train would stretch out a distance of over 230 miles, reaching from New York to Utica by way of Albany, or from New York to Boston with six miles to spare. In solid cubic contents the eleven million one hundred thousand boxes which filled these cars would equal double the same number of cubic feet, and twenty-two million two hundred thousand cubic feet of oranges would make a solid pyramid of nature's pure gold nearly three hundred feet high and an equal number of feet square at the base, thus dwarfing in volume Egypt's famous Cheops, besides being vastly more delightsome to the eye and infinitely more suggestive to the appetite.

PICKING ORANGES

While this article is primarily devoted to the orange, a paragraph should be devoted to that other fragrant member of the citrus family, the lemon, which ranks next to the orange in commercial importance and may be found growing side by side with it almost everywhere in Southern California. The lemon tree presents probably the best example of all fruits of what may be called "a continual performance." There is always "something doing" with a lemon tree. Like a noted New York financier and many housewives, it never seems to take a vacation nor a

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rest, but is "up and at it" all the year around. Lemons are grown more or less all through the citrus belt of California, but on account of its tenderness the industry is more strictly limited to a frostless section than the hardier orange. The shipments of lemons last season reached a total of 5,378 carloads against 26,044 carloads of oranges, and this is about the proportion of the output which has obtained for several years.

LOADING FOR THE MARKET

Of the by-products of the orange there is little now to be said. The distance and cost of transportation to the eastern market have thus far made it seem impracticable to make commercial use of anything except the selected fruit as it comes from the tree. Spain and other Mediterranean lands must, therefore, be depended upon for some time to come for orange-flower perfume and the oils, essences and extracts demanded for the use of confectioners, perfumers, and other fancy trades. The manufacture of that toothsome product known as orange marmalade is engaging some attention in California, but not enough yet to figure large commercially.

A few of the large growers are utilizing their "culls" by feeding them to herds of pigs and cattle and a limited quantity of this imperfect fruit is sold to local peddlers, but for the most part the cast-off oranges from the orchards and packing-houses are left to rot on the ground, or are gathered into heaps and burned. To a mind accustomed to think of oranges in the light of a luxury, such a use of the fruit, much of which is only slightly damaged, seems like an unpardonable waste. To a person with altruistic weaknesses, the sight is specially distressing. As I looked upon wagonloads of these apples of Hesperides, imperfect only to an expert eye, consigned to the muck-heap, I thought of the rare joy and satisfaction that could be coined out of them if some philanthropic souls would gather them up, as Edward Everett Hale and his friends have gathered up the waste apples of New England, and send them to tenement homes and the abodes of suffering in our great cities. I have seen enough golden globes thrown to the garbage-pile from a single packing-house to fill Mulberry Bend full of juicy happiness for a month.

In the course of my investigations into the orange industry, I spent two days among the groves and packing-houses of one of the great fruit companies at River-

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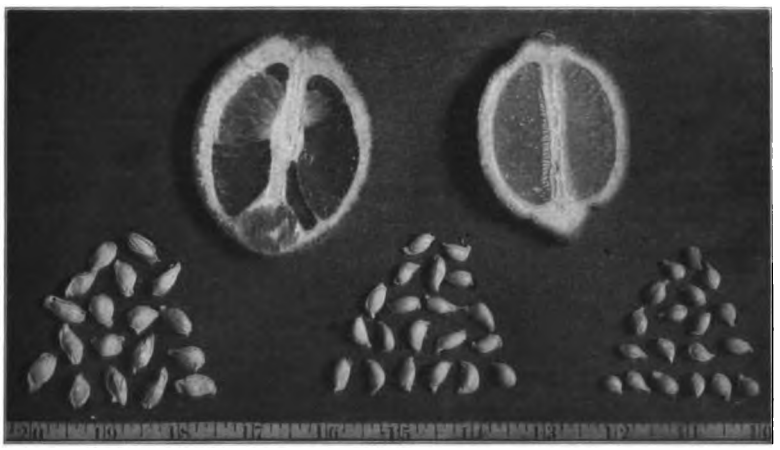
side. This company has under its ownership and management 2,500 acres of oranges and 650 acres of lemons, the largest acreage in the world of both these fruits under one control. Last year the company shipped 326,900 boxes of oranges and 117,632 boxes of lemons, or 1,200 carloads in all, with a gross value of $1,222,413.81. The total freight and refrigeration charges on the 1,200 carloads was $455,420.

Its groves are irrigated entirely by the furrow-system, with water supplied by artesian wells and brought to the ground by a main canal twenty miles in length. The groves are laid out in blocks or sections of forty acres each, and again into lots of ten acres, the whole tract being intersected with broad avenues smoothed and hardened with oil and lined with giant palms, pepper trees, and semi-tropical shrubbery, giving a magnificent park-like effect to the scene.

For fertilization it has been found that different species of the leguminous family, grown between the rows of trees and plowed under, are not only much cheaper but more effective than ordinary manures. For these "cover crops" the field pea is used most extensively, but experiments are being tried with the cowpea and several varieties of vetch. Some of these plants have a long, deeply penetrating mass of rootlets which serve admirably in aerating the soil, letting down the water and air, and also in gathering free nitrogen from the atmosphere through the workings of the soil bacteria. In most cases these rootlets are covered thickly with nodules for the storing up of nitrogen.

In the warfare against insect enemies the orange-farmer makes extensive use of distillate, a preparation of crude oil, which is sprayed on the trees at regular intervals. This is found to be effective and satisfactory for most insects. For such insects as the red scale, however, the spray is not sufficently penetrating, and for these a fumigating process is employed with the aid of tents. Each infected tree is covered with a tent, under which vapor is set free which kills off the pest. This vapor or gas is produced by the combination of equal parts of cyanide of potassium and sulphuric acid and water.

Aside from its purely material and financial aspects, the results in dollars and cents, it may be truly said of the orange industry that it probably involves less drudgery, less wearing toil, in proportion to its results, than any other form of agricultural employment. As one orange-grower expressed it, "It has less backaches to the square rod" than any other work of its kind. Upon any one who, like the writer, knows of the routine of labor on any ordinary eastern farm, the expression will not be lost. When an orange grove has once been fairly started, under the prevailing system of irrigation and culture, long intervals come in every year when it may be safely left to care for itself, doing its work while the owner sleeps or enjoys a well-earned leisure in other ways. Except for the picking, there



THE SEEDLESS ORANGE AND THE ALMOST SEEDLESS LEMON
Pomelo or Grape Fruit Seed Blood-Orange Seed Mandarin Orange Seed

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JAPANESE WORKMEN GRADING ORANGES IN A PACKING-HOUSE

is little handwork to be performed at any time of year; labor-saving machinery does the rest.

Owners of small orchards find it more economical to have the cultivation and spraying done by contract with men who go about the orange districts for this purpose, than to invest in horses and machinery for their own use. Especially is this the case with the steam spraying-machines, which are expensive affairs and only require to be used at intervals of one or two years. For such service the operators of the machine make a charge based on the size of the orchard, usually amounting to about $10 per acre. The

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water for irrigation is brought to the borders of the groves in pipes or small canals, and the task of letting in the water among the trees five or six times during the dry season is not burdensome. The irrigation plants are usually under public ownership and managed by officials

"Tossing naked and withered branches to the sky,
In a long winter sleep,"

but is always in full leafage, always abounding in a happy and radiant life and keeping up nearly all the year around, and at one and the same time,

A CREW OF PICKERS AT WORK AT RIVERSIDE

elected for that purpose. Some of the duties of these officials are to notify each individual orange-grower in their districts when his turn comes to use the water, and how long he may use it, and to see that the storage reservoirs are kept in order for all emergencies. The expense of irrigation comes in the shape of a tax which amounts to about $5 per acre.

And if the culture of the orange is attended with fewer drafts upon the physical powers, less work and worry, than most other rural pursuits, it also has an appeal to the aesthetic sensibilities rarely to be found in other callings of its kind. For of few objects in nature so much as of an orange tree can it be truly said that it is "a thing of beauty and a joy forever." Unlike its fellow trees of the deciduous family, it has no season of "the eternal process" of budding, blossoming and yielding fruit. Not only has the orange tree no recurring period of winter rest; but unlike the apple, the pear and other deciduous fruits, it seldom takes an "off year," and if kept in a healthy state bears its crop annually with little variation in size or quality. In its productiveness the orange tree is, indeed, a marvel, and there seems to be no known limit to its power in this respect, nor to its age. The historians of the orange tell of seedling trees which, under favorable conditions, have lived for centuries and never ceased bearing. At the convent of St. Sabina, at Rome, there is such a tree thirty-two feet high which is said to be over six hundred years old, and another at Hampton Court, grown under glass, over two hundred years old.

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LESLIE M. SHAW

SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY

Portrait on page 2

BY

F. G. MOORHEAD

HEN William Jennings Bryan first flashed into view, in 1896, one of the most interested and attentive auditors at one of his great political meetings was a young and ambitious country lawyer and banker of Denison, Iowa. He quickly saw through what he believed to be the fallacies of the brilliant Nebraskan and proposed to himself to riddle them with shot and shell of actual facts. But how to secure a hearing? He was not a politician, he was unknown throughout the state and nation. Despairing of a better opportunity, he appeared before a meeting of the business men of the little Iowa town in which he lived and answered the address they had recently heard from the presidential nominee. A correspondent of a metropolitan newspaper happened to be present and the countryman awoke the next morning to find himself famous. Within a week he had been engaged to deliver a series of replies to Mr. Bryan. During the campaign he spoke in his own state sixty times and was sent hither and thither in other states. One week he spoke twenty-seven hours, an average of four and one-half hours each day. Week after week he kept up the pace with never a break, interspersing his addresses on finance with homely humor and fitting story that made comparisons to Abraham Lincoln inevitable. These speeches made Leslie M. Shaw of Denison governor of Iowa a year later, although he had never held a public position before, save that of school director in a rural community.

When the aged father of the governor-elect was notified of his son's success he expressed little surprise, explaining: "I knew Leslie was in the line of promotion, for he was born in a log cabin."

"Farm boys of to-day have no idea of the work we boys in those days had to do," declared Secretary Shaw recently, telling the story of the struggle of his early years. He was born in a log cabin in Lamoille county, Vermont, in 1848. At the age of five years he accompanied his parents to a farm near the little town of Stone and there he passed the most of the time until he came West, in 1869. It was no easy life, that strenuous work in the fields all day and far into the night. "At 5 o'clock in the morning we were at work. When meal-time came our meal was ready when we reached the house and, after eating it, we never thought of sitting back from the table for a few moments' rest, but went to the fields again at once. At night after the cows were milked and supper over we walked up the back stairway to bed, and, oh, how we did sleep until the time came for us to get up and go over the same program again."

Working on the farm in summer, teaching country schools and stealing a term now and then to attend the academy, Shaw passed the years until he was twenty-one, when Horace Greeley's famous advice inspired him to cast his fortunes with the growing West. He had heard wonderful tales of the ready wealth of the country adjacent to the Red River of the North, and there he headed. But, en route, passing through Iowa, he decided to stop for a short visit. It just happened that he reached the town of Mount Vernon when cornhusking was at its height and men were scarce. Instead of visiting, young Shaw went to work and when cornhusking was over he decided to pay a deferred visit to his

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grandmother, at the little town of Delhi. When he reached there he learned that a school-teacher was wanted, and so turning his back on his grandmother's place he went to work again. As he tells the incident:

"I went to Manchester and then walked to Delhi, reaching there about 2 o'clock in the afternoon and went into an examination of teachers to get a certificate to teach. I succeeded in getting a certificate before any of the other applicants, all of whom had been at work since morning. I went back and taught the term out and at the close of school I walked back to Mount Vernon, to save railroad fare."

As soon as school was out, he began to tramp about the country peddling nursery stock. "Apple-Tree Shaw," they called him in those days and "Apple-Tree Shaw" he is still in many a section of Iowa. As one of the old farmers to whom Shaw repeatedly sold stock once remarked: "When 'Apple-Tree Shaw' began to talk about plantin' an orchard you might as well consider it a-growin'." But there were some balky ones and when it was utterly impossible to sell the men trees Shaw asked to see the women folks and seldom left the house without selling them a book for the parlor table. Trees and books, he was prepared for all.

"In the spring of 1870, I tramped the country over from farm to farm," he says. "It was a cold, wet spring and every night my limbs were wet clear to my body. Often I have been compelled to take off my shoes and ford streams barefooted, while there was snow on the banks. I didn't make much money that spring, but I persevered and spent the summer in that section taking orders. After delivery in the fall I had a horse which I drove from Fort Dodge to Waterloo, where I sold the horse. Then I took the cars to Manchester and walked from the Bay Settlement to Mount Vernon, a distance of forty miles, in one day. The fare on the railroad, four or five cents a mile, I thought too much, so I started at sun-up and was at Mount Vernon about 8:30 in the evening."

This fruit-tree peddling was valuable from two standpoints: it supported the young man and gave him a valuable acquaintanceship in the country and insight into human nature. "I was never out of a job," he declares, "and the experience in meeting men and grappling with them in selling fruit trees was pretty nearly as good schooling as I ever got from the books."

In 1871 Shaw entered Mount Vernon College, paying his tuition and expenses by continuing to act as a nursery stock solicitor, teaching school and working as a "hand" on near-by farms. It is to his experience in teaching school that the Secretary of the Treasury now attributes one of his noticeable traits, that of looking straight into the eyes of every person with whom he talks. His hearty grip is a reminder of the campaign days of 1896, but his hypnotic, compelling stare harks back further than that. This is the way he tells the story:

"When I first began teaching school they gave me the toughest school in the neighborhood. Some of the boys were bigger than I was and they boasted of having made life miserable for all my predecessors. They began with me the very first day; when I called on one of the big boys to spell bucket, he spelled 'p-a-i-l' and giggled. This started the rest of the room giggling, too. I saw I'd have my hands full in a minute. I had to do something. I waited for the giggling to stop, then I caught that boy's eyes and we began staring at each other. I don't know how long we kept it up, but I know the whole room was watching us in silence. I didn't say a word until, pretty soon, the boy blinked and dropped his gaze on the floor. 'Now, then,' I remarked, 'you spell bucket.' But there was still some fight in him and he tried to raise his eyes to me. He got them as high as the top of my desk and there they stuck. 'Spell bucket,' said I, more sternly. He made one more attempt, but his eyes slid down to the top of my desk. 'Bucket,' I shouted in my deepest voice. 'B-u-c-k-e-t,' he said, meekly, and went on looking at the top of my desk. I didn't have any more trouble with that school."

"But what did the top of the desk have to do with it?" the Secretary was asked.

"H'm, well, you see, I had a three-quarter inch hickory stick there to help my eyes out," he replied, chuckling, and it was not until he had had his laugh out that he added:

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"But the experience taught me to use my eyes, no matter what I'm doing or whom I'm talking to. You can win out better that way."

After graduating from Mount Vernon College, Shaw decided to study law and took a two-year course in the Iowa College of Law, in Des Moines, earning his own way as he had at Mount Vernon. Armed with his sheepskin and shingle, the young lawyer went to Denison, which he had visited on his fruit-tree rounds, and presented himself before a young lawyer he had met. "What's the matter with forming a partnership?" asked the novice; "would you care to let me in with you?" The lawyer "cared" and thereafter the sign read Connor & Shaw. To-day the senior member of that firm is in Washington as a Congressman from Iowa, and the junior member has been there four years as Secretary of the Treasury.

The law firm was successful and was represented in all the leading cases in the county. "Sometimes I drove ninety miles in one day to try a case," declares Shaw. "I would get up at 2 o'clock in the morning and would get back late at night, changing teams on the way."

But successful as they were, Shaw found the returns coming in too slowly. He believed the time was ripe for a coup. In the neighborhood were scores of farmers striving to pay for their homesteads. The country was new, the interest rates high and money scarce. Shaw had an inspiration. Back in Vermont, among the family friends, were a couple of capitalists. Without saying a word to any person Shaw purchased a railroad ticket—it was a national G. A. R. excursion, and the rates were cheap — and returned to Vermont. The capitalists were skeptical.

"You come out with me and I'll convince you," declared the transplanted easterner. One capitalist became impressed and accompanied Shaw to Iowa. The two drove from farm to farm until the entire county had been visited. One after another, the intelligent, industrious farmers were introduced to the easterner. "They all knew Shaw, and most of them liked him," says one commentator. "They had bought trees in their orchards from him. There were books in the parlor he had sold to them. The wills in their safes he had drawn up for them. Their children were in his Sunday-school. Even the Baptists and Congregationalists and those who considered him too shrewd for comfort liked to talk to him. He always had a story to tell and, better, he always laughed at their jokes."

The result of that trip was that several millions of eastern dollars were loaned to Iowa farmers through Connor & Shaw, and so successful was Shaw in judging men that not a single dollar was ever lost or mortgage foreclosed, even in the panic of 1893.

This was the country lawyer and banker who decided to reply to Mr. Bryan and who won his spurs so doing. The next year he became Governor of Iowa, although three-fourths of the delegates at the convention which nominated him were unfamiliar with him, save through his campaign speeches. The year after he was elected governor, he was campaigning in the Northwest. Approaching Yankton, South Dakota, in company with Theodore Roosevelt, then Governor of New York, Shaw was cautioned by Roosevelt. "I wouldn't say anything here about silver, if I were you, Shaw; let the dead bury the dead." But Governor Shaw shook his head. "No, sir," he replied stubbornly, "the dead may come to life again." And in Governor Roosevelt's hearing he delivered at Yankton one of his most earnest gold speeches, talking straight from the shoulder. At the conclusion of the speech, while Yankton was cheering itself hoarse, Governor Roosevelt grabbed Governor Shaw's hand and shouted enthusiastically: "Thank you, thank you, for that speech. I shall never forget it." And when President Roosevelt wanted a Secretary of the Treasury he remembered that man and that speech.

As a cabinet member, Secretary Shaw continued to be a hard worker, down in the morning ahead of most of the clerks.

"What are you doing here?" growled the watchman at the door the second morning of Secretary Shaw's administration, when the new Secretary presented himself at an unseemly early hour.

"I thought I'd go to the Secretary's office, if you please," was the meek reply.

"Don't you know nobody arrives at this time of day? He's not here yet," was the contemptuous reply.

"Well, he ought to be, and that's the

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reason I want to get in, if you'll let me," explained Secretary Shaw, handing his card to the astonished watchman.

Secretary Shaw's predilection for an illustrating story is one of his notable traits. There is never a political address without a half dozen or more stories. This trait came near getting him in trouble once. Always a devout Methodist and enthusiastic church-worker, Shaw was once taken to task by his fellow workers for what they were pleased to call his levity. "Don't tell so many stories," they urged, and Shaw, eager to continue in the work, agreed never to tell another. But the very next Sunday he was talking in Sunday-school and needed to illustrate his point. He wanted to make the boys understand how good, wholesome country lads are changed into bad boys in the city. He repeated the idea in various forms several times, but it was easy to see that the boys were not impressed. Something must be done to drive the thought home. Finally, in despair, Shaw looked at his advisors and blurted out:

"I can't help it, I can't help it; but it's very much like the farmer who lived on the Oregon River. This farmer caught a very fine salmon one day and thought he'd take it into the city to the minister, who was very fond of salmon." When he had gotten this far the boys immediately began to pay attention. Shaw continued:

"On the way to the city he stopped to get dinner at a country tavern and boasted about the fine salmon and what he meant to do with it. Some jokers went out to the wagon, took out the salmon and put a sturgeon in its place. When John got to the minister's he reached under the seat for the salmon and pulled out — a sturgeon. He looked at it for a moment and then put it back and, without ringing the minister's doorbell, he turned back home in shame and sorrow. He stopped at the same hotel for supper. While he was in the dining-room they took out the sturgeon and put back the original salmon. John drove on home. His son met him at the house.

" 'Well, how did he like the salmon, father?'

"The old man shook his head. 'That was no salmon,' he said. 'It was nothing but an old sturgeon.'

" 'Father, what are you talking about,' asked the son, pulling out the fish. 'This is a salmon, all right.'

"The old man picked up the fish, gazed at it, turned it over this way and that and then he said: 'You're the funniest fish I ever saw. You're a salmon in the country and a sturgeon in the city.' "

From that day to this nobody has tried to convince Secretary Shaw that he ought not to illustrate his points with stories.

JOHN E. WILKIE

CHIEF OF THE UNITED STATES SECRET SERVICE

Portrait on page 7

BY

C. H. FORBES-LINDSAY

ANYONE who had known John E. Wilkie as managing editor of the Chicago *Tribune* some twelve years ago would recognize him at a glance in the coatless man seated at his desk in the Treasury Building, with pipe in mouth. Save that the unruly mass of hair, just touched by the frost of time, has thinned down to an orderly mat with a decorous parting, there is no outward sign of change. Thirty years of continuous hard work have left no impression of wear. The ample contours, full face, smooth brow, and clear, calm eye, are features of a man whose life is well regulated and his work well mastered. He is never more than "fairly busy," because always conscious of a reserve force. There is a suggestion of suppressed energy

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in every movement of the square-set frame. The dark brown eyes are not of the kind that are usually described as "piercing," but they have the look of placid, leisurely penetration that is most often seen in the eyes of children and seafaring men. There is nothing in the manner or appearance of John E. Wilkie in the least degree suggestive of the detective. His mien is that of the quiet, self-contained business man, practical and prosaic. He discourages theatrical display and fiction of all sorts. The headquarters office is commonplace to the casual eye. Nothing in sight could possibly raise a suspicion of the sensational and dramatic records locked away in the cabinets. Visitors, with an awesome preconception of mystery and melodrama, tiptoe into the rooms expectant of thrilling experience, and depart perplexed and disappointed, for the police station of a petty precinct affords more satisfaction to the chance sensation-seeker than the headquarters of the Secret Service of the United States.

Sanity and balance are the most pronounced characteristics of the chief. The statement may seem banal — but is it? How rare are men of perfectly sound mentality and those who are not more or less lopsided. John Wilkie has improved the heritage of a fine intellect by assiduous cultivation, for which his journalistic career afforded a peculiarly plethoric opportunity. His mental processes are extremely direct and methodical. In the reception, or recital, of a story he displays the nicest sense of values and an instinctive grasp of essentials. I once asked him for a detailed statement of the complicated "Philadelphia-Lancaster Case." The affair, with its ramifications, extended over two years and would afford material for a book. The story was an hour and twenty minutes in the unbroken telling. The points were given in chronological, or logical, sequence — whichever might better serve the understanding — and in language that could hardly have been improved upon. So clear and orderly was the statement that at its conclusion I was able, although I had taken no notes, to sit down and reproduce it almost verbatim.

John Wilkie invariably displays the equipoise that comes of habitual self-control. I had evidence of this on a recent occasion and under the circumstance of one of those serious annoyances that betray us, more readily than a tragedy, into an exhibition of emotion. He had been recounting to me the "Wiggins-Thompson Case" and had just remarked, "The photographer of the gang was —" when the telephone bell cut him short. It was a long-distance call from an operative, telling of one of those discouraging incidents which, from time to time, take the gilt off the gingerbread of secret service success. A criminal, whose capture had perhaps been the climax of long months of hard and patient labor, had, within the hour, been released by the court on a technicality. It was a serious setback and a keen disappointment. There was the faintest shade of vexation in the Chief's "Too bad!" and more of sympathy with the operative, whose past work in the case threatened to go for nought. There appeared to be chance of securing a fresh indictment at once and rearresting the culprit before he could get away. The operative received his instructions in brief, concise terms. The Chief hung up the receiver and, as it left his hand, the matter apparently left his mind. Swinging round in his chair he put a fresh match to his pipe and resumed at the precise point where he had left off as though there had been no interruption, "The photographer of the gang was Doctor Wilson," and so on to the end of the narrative, as if it had been the most absorbing matter in his mind, which in truth it was, because the matter of the moment. At its conclusion, he put on his coat and went to consult the solicitor of the treasury with reference to the news which had been telephoned to him, and that in turn took possession of his mind to the exclusion of everything else.

Chief Wilkie, like most men who have lived a life of constant endeavor with uniform success, is modest but confident. When, after fifteen years of newspaper work, he received the unexpected offer to take charge of the Secret Service Division, he accepted it without doubt of his ability to "make good," and the immediate test put upon him by the Spanish-American War found him equal to the task in a degree that Secretary Gage, despite a very high opinion of his ability, had not looked

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for. A special emergency force was speedily organized, and in the contest of courage and wits that ensued, the Spanish secret service was defeated at every point and its most important agents were captured. The sensational "Downing incident," which terminated in the expulsion of Señor Carranza from British territory, won John Wilkie his spurs and silenced the skeptics who had been loud in their expressions of doubt as to the ability of so young a man to fill so difficult a position, for the secret service is the most difficult division in the government.

During the eight years of his service, Chief Wilkie has mastered some of the most important counterfeiting cases in the history of the bureau, and has gained for himself the reputation of being the most capable head the Secret Service Division has ever had. In the early years of his career he brought to a close the activities of the notorious Johnson family, who had been counterfeiters for three generations. This notable achievement was followed by the capture and conviction of the entire gang — twelve men were sent to prison — in the celebrated Jacobs-Kendig case, the most gigantic counterfeiting conspiracy in the annals of crime. These men made the most dangerous bogus bill that had ever been seen by the treasury experts and had carefully laid plans for floating $10,000,000 in forged notes. The Jacobs-Kendig affair, in the detection of which the Chief played the principal part himself, was as clever and thorough a piece of work as any in fact or fiction. Another highly important case, but only one in a score, was that of Davis, or Lieberman, the international counterfeiter, whose capture had been sought unremittingly during eight years by Scotland Yard detectives and the agents of our secret service. This astute criminal defied the law with wonderful success until he was bagged by John Wilkie.

But the most valuable service, by reason of its probable permanency, performed by the present Chief, is evidenced in the splendid organization and high state of efficiency of the bureau, which far transcend any previous attainment. Other divisions of the government have their detective force, but all these acknowledge the superiority of the secret service and turn to it for assistance in difficult cases. Thus Chief Wilkie's bureau is called upon to investigate all manner of violations of the United States statutes, frauds in connection with the postoffice, landoffice, immigration commission, customs, internal revenue and what not. The secret service has offices in all the large centers of the country and employs hundreds of operatives; how many and who they are, only the Chief and the Secretary of the Treasury know.

When his own achievements are referred to Mr. Wilkie never fails to express a warm eulogium of the loyalty and efficiency of the men under his direction. He says he possesses the invaluable faculty of "sizing up" men. When he finds a good one, he favors him by working him hard. He knows, to an ounce, the weight-carrying capacity of each of his principal men and he is no light task-master, but labor-lust is a consuming passion with him and he spares himself less than he spares his subordinates. This they know and respond ungrudgingly to the spur. Under the stimulus of judicious urging and generous approval, the operative expends himself to the utmost, in the assurance that the reward of good work is as inevitable as the penalty of inefficiency. The same loyalty and respect that Wilkie, as editor of the Chicago *Tribune,* secured from his staff, is given to him by the men at present under his command. I use the word advisedly, for in its working and discipline the secret service is not unlike a military force and the keen *esprit de corps* that permeates it enhances the resemblance. When one considers the conditions, it is to wonder that a secret service man so seldom breaks troth. Take the Jacobs-Kendig case, for illustration: Here was as shrewd and unscrupulous a gang as ever concocted a crime, with half a million or more at command. There were upwards of one hundred men and women employed over a period of eighteen months in the pursuit of these criminals, who would gladly have bought any one of them, as they bought two ex-United States attorneys, and not one of them but knew it. Yet there was not the smallest leak, not a broken mesh in the net, and the first intimation the press and the public had of the affair came with the arrests that struck the counterfeiters with the suddenness of a thunderclap.

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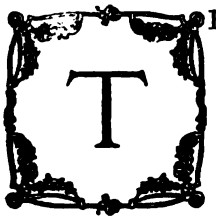
TWO HISTORY-MAKING CONVENTIONS

I. THE LAKES-TO-THE-GULF DEEP WATERWAYS ASSOCIATION

BY

CHARLES M. HARVEY



THE representatives of Chicago, St. Louis, Memphis, New Orleans and the other cities of the great valley who met at St. Louis on October 15 and 16, 1906, gave concrete shape to the popular desire of the people of the Mississippi valley for direct and adequate water connection between the great seas on the country's northern and southern borders. In pursuance of this idea they formed the Lakes-to-the-Gulf Deep Waterways Association. It is composed of delegates from all the states of the Mississippi Valley and on the lake and the gulf coasts. It selected W. K. Kavanaugh of St. Louis for president; D. R. Forgan of Chicago, M. J. Sanders of New Orleans, S. M. Neely of Memphis, J. L. Hebron of Greenville, Mississippi, and Greenfield Quarles of Helena, Arkansas, as vice-presidents; and W. F. Saunders of St. Louis as secretary.

Resolutions were adopted by the convention urging Congress to provide a fourteen-foot channel from the southern terminus of the Chicago Drainage Canal through the Illinois River to the Mississippi and down the latter to St. Louis. Congress was also urged, as a preliminary, to give stability to the channel of the Mississippi from St. Louis southward, and then to cut the channel to the adequate depth. The engineers' estimates are that the deep waterway from the Drainage Canal to St. Louis will cost $31,000,000. The minimum depth of the main channel in the Drainage Canal is twenty-two feet, so that the proposed fourteen-foot channel from the canal to St. Louis would furnish navigation from Chicago as far as the Missouri metropolis for vessels of fairly heavy draft.

As Chicago has paid out of her own treasury more than $50,000,000 in the aggregate for the construction and maintenance of the Drainage Canal, and as she offers to donate the canal to the United States if the government pledges itself to open and maintain deep water from Chicago to the Gulf, the convention expressed the idea that this proposition ought to strike Congress favorably.

The engineers estimate that a permanent eight-foot channel can be obtained between St. Louis and Cairo, at the mouth of the Ohio, for about $18,000,000. Without any extra expenditure the channel between St. Louis and Cairo throughout 1906 was about eight feet at the lowest stage of the water, at the shallowest point in that course. It is figured that a fourteen-foot channel from St. Louis to Cairo could be had for $30,000,000.

This course from Chicago to the sea by way of the Mississippi would be available through practically the entire year, while the route eastward from Chicago by way of the lakes and Canada's canals and rivers is closed by ice five months out of the year, and that by way of the Erie Canal is shut up four months out of the twelve. And yet Canada's 6,000,000 people are spending very much more for the improvement of their water communication with the West than the Mississippi Valley asks the United States government to lay out on the deepening of a course from the lakes to the Gulf, while New York is contributing $101,000,000 to deepen its canals for the transit of one-thousand-ton barges.

At an engineers' meeting in St. Louis just after the close of the Deep Waterways Convention Isham Randolph of Chicago said he had found that there were three thousand two hundred Ameri-

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can craft on the great lakes. "With an available channel from the lakes to the Gulf," he added, "this fleet could pass out of the lakes when the navigation season closed there, and for three months engage in coastwise and South American trade, going back to the lakes when the navigation season opens there. The time will come when, like the birds, the vessels of the lakes will migrate with the seasons."

A vigorous and intelligent effort is being made by the Lakes-to-the-Gulf Deep Waterways Association to secure the aid of the societies which are working for the improvement of the upper Mississippi, the lower Mississippi, the Missouri and the Ohio rivers, and reciprocal assistance is promised for their projects. The activity of the Lakes-to-the-Gulf promoters at the meeting of the Rivers and Harbors Congress in Washington on December 7 and 8, and the earnestness with which their project is pressed on the attention of the national Congress, give promise of good results even in the session of Congress which closes on March 4, 1907.

"An annual river and harbor bill for $50,000,000!" is the campaign cry of the Lakes-to-the-Gulf deep water boomers, and they expect to get their share of that appropriation. As, from present indications, the treasury surplus for the fiscal year which closes on June 30, 1907, will be nearly if not quite $50,000,000, as compared with one of $25,000,000 for the year ending with June, 1906, and deficits for the two preceding years, the workers for this appropriation feel encouraged.

This outlay would undoubtedly pay good dividends to the people of the entire country, on the Atlantic seaboard as well as in the Mississippi Valley, through the lowered cost of transportation by water, and through the reduction of rates by the railways to meet this competition. The old-time Illinois and Michigan Canal, which does comparatively little business, has the effect of keeping down railway rates in its field. At the time of the opening of the Eads jetties on the southern end of the Mississippi, in 1879, it was estimated that that improvement in navigation added $180,000,000 a year to the value of the crops raised in the Mississippi valley by forcing railway trunk lines to lower their rates to the Atlantic seaboard in order to meet the menace of the competition which the route by way of the big river to the Gulf of Mexico held out.

Congress passed a law in 1906 giving the Interstate Commerce Commission the power to reduce railway rates when, on complaint, they were found to be excessive. Adequate waterway communication through the big valley would be far more effective in the direction of railway rate regulation than any regulation act passed by Congress could ever be.

Manifestly, at the present value of the crops and factory products, which are double as large as they were at the time when the Eads jetties were completed, the proposed deep waterway from the lakes to the Gulf would pay for itself several times over each year in the reduction of freight rates to the farmer and the manufacturer.

Said Secretary Root while in Chicago a few days after the St. Louis convention: "The proposed Lakes-to-the-Gulf deep water route would be an extension of the Panama Canal, and Chicago and St. Louis would have almost an air line to the isthmus."

The centers of the country's population, of its manufactures, of its food supply, of its aggregate activities and likewise of its wealth are all in the Mississippi Valley. The valley has two-fifths of the area, and produces seventy-five per cent of the merchandise exports of the United States. It has sixteen thousand miles of navigable waters. Lyman E. Cooley, the well-known Chicago engineer, says if the streams of the valley were improved as thoroughly as those of France and Germany, these sixteen thousand miles of navigable waters would be extended to forty-five thousand.

As, through Chicago's prominence in the movement, most of the territory through the basin of the great lakes is coöperating with the Mississippi Valley, this project has good prospects. In mentioning the things which center in the Mississippi Valley we must not forget that that region is also the center of the social and political gravity of the United States. This fact may have a decisive influence on the fate of the Lakes-to-the-Gulf deep water propaganda.

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Photograph by Strauss, St. Louis

W. K. KAVANAUGH
President of the Lakes-to-the-Gulf Deep Waterway Association

CONGRESSMAN JOSEPH E. RANSDELL, OF LOUISIANA
Member of House Committee on Rivers and Harbors, and a leader of the Deep Waterway movement

II. THE TRANS-MISSISSIPPI COMMERCIAL CONGRESS

BY

W. E. WILLIAMS

THE seventeenth annual session of the Trans-Mississippi Commercial Congress, just held in Kansas City, was truly a remarkable one. History was made there, and as a result of its deliberations the national congress will shortly proceed to make more history.

"The most important commercial convention ever held in the United States," said David R. Francis, president of the congress. And Mr. Francis should know.

Europe had been waiting to learn whether the Monroe doctrine is a dead letter, as averred by Professor Burgess, or the living, vital doctrine it was when pronounced by James Monroe. It learned from Secretary Root at Kansas City.

The continental press is still commenting upon the Roosevelt administration's reaffirmation of the doctrine through the Secretary of State, and it is taking note as well of the declaration that the United States must be commercially supreme in the southern part of the hemisphere. It has not overlooked the fact that representatives of the principal Latin-American nations were present to ratify the semi-official announcement of the administration's representative.

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H. D. LOVELAND, SAN FRANCISCO
The newly elected President of the Trans-Mississippi Commercial Congress

Just before adjournment, the congress by resolution indorsed "the propositions submitted by Secretary Root for encouraging the merchant marine and for increasing our intercourse with South America by adequate mail facilities." It concluded its expression upon this subject by advising "both parties in Congress to consider the creation of the American merchant marine from a non-partisan standpoint."

But here the congress "straddled." It dodged the "ship subsidy" issue, which had been made prominent by Secretary Root. And this is the only "straddle" of which the congress was guilty. It was feared that too fierce a fight might be precipitated by an out-and-out expression, and the resolutions were left indefinite. When the interests represented in the congress put pressure upon the Senators and Representatives from the western states in the merchant marine matter, Republicans will say that the resolutions mean ship subsidy, to which Secretary Root's speech recommitted the administration. The Democrats will say that they mean nothing of the kind.

Secretary Root's speech and the presence of Latin-American diplomats made the meeting of the congress of international importance. The action finally taken by the congress upon matters of internal administration made the meeting of equal importance in strictly national affairs.

The men and the millions of the trans-Mississippi, from Alaska to the Gulf and from the Gulf to Hawaii, came to the congress, fought out their differences and fell in line for the march upon the national congress. And there were differences in plenty before the adoption of the resolutions which were the expression of the congress as a whole.

"There may be too much harmony here!" exclaimed a delegate from Texas. "There is no harmony in Texas except in cemeteries."

COL. FRED W. FLEMING, KANSAS CITY
Chairman of the executive committee of the Trans-Mississippi Commercial Congress

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His fears proved groundless. They were strong men, they of the congress, and for the most part self-made men, from "Dave" Francis down to the men from Muskogee. It is good for such men to fight. They fought at Kansas City and that without distinction as to place or regard for prestige.

The policies of Secretary Root were assailed by an unknown editor of a South Dakota country paper. E. H. Harriman, who made his second public speech and probably his last in defense of his railway methods, was flayed by a mattressmaker from Denver, who shook his finger in the railway king's face and told him that he and his associates were robbing the manufacturers of the Middle West by unfair rates.

William J. Bryan and Secretary Shaw, whose addresses were studies in radicalism, were so near together upon the program that their speeches were practically a debate, but the theories of both were boldly attacked by men whose word is good at the bank, but whose voices have never before been heard in public disputation. It was strictly a democratic convention, and one man's voice was as good as another's.

The men in the congress represented the money and brains of twenty-two states and territories and almost a majority of the national congress. They re-

Photograph by Thompson, Kansas City

DELEGATES FROM SOUTH AMERICA TO THE TRANS-MISSISSIPPI COMMERCIAL CONGRESS

Upper row, left to right: Sylvino Gurgel do Amaral, chargé d'affaires, Brazilian embassy, Washington; John Barrett, United States Minister to Colombia; Alberto Yoacham, chargé d'affaires, Chilean embassy, Washington

Lower row: Felipe Pardo, minister from Peru; Ignacio Calderon, minister from Bolivia; Enrique Cortes, minister from the United States of Colombia

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membered that out of thirty-eight specific recommendations made last year, thirty have been enacted into law or have been favorably considered in the national legislative body. Therefore they went about their deliberations seriously, and when they had finished they were united upon a new set of recommendations. Many senators and representatives were delegates to the congress, and those who were not will feel the pressure brought to bear by the gigantic interests represented there.

The river improvement movement, which has been crystallizing rapidly during the last few years, took final form before the congress. Its resolutions demand $50,000,000 for rivers and harbors from the next national congress, most of it to be spent on rivers. The "deep waterway" from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico, and the Missouri River, which is rapidly being "put back on the map," are among those specified. Congressmen present declared that with the West united in this demand, Congress must accede.

JOHN HENRY SMITH
One of the Twelve Apostles of the Mormon church, and former President of the Trans-Mississippi Congress. He is an advocate of extension of irrigation and government aid for the sugar-beet industry

The establishment of a portfolio of mines and mining; of the extension of the merit system in the consular service; the sale of Indian coal, oil and asphalt lands in tracts of not more than 160 acres on long-time payments; statehood for New Mexico; and legislation to insure the flexibility of the currency were among other things demanded. Last, but not least perhaps, in expressing the sentiment of the West, the congress voted almost unanimously to adopt two resolutions by William J. Bryan: one declaring against private monopoly and for legislation to destroy it; and another declaring for the submission of all international disputes to a board of arbitration before resorting to force.

Resolutions for further regulation of railways were received coldly. Two such expressions, neither of which was extremely radical, were voted down almost unanimously. Evidently the sentiment which chastened Harriman for demanding "more power" for the railways responded readily to that magnate's plea that the government should first show what it could *do* with the powers lately conferred by the new rate law.

There were public men present who declared that the speeches of Bryan, Root and Shaw were of the key-note variety and that their utterances were made with a thought to the presidential campaign of 1908. These statesmen point to the fact that both members of the President's cabinet laid great stress upon the ship subsidy and the extension of trade in Latin-America, while Mr. Bryan, in reply to both Secretary Root and Secretary Shaw, declared himself unalterably against subsidy in a speech which has been pronounced worthy to stand beside any of his previous efforts.

"It was no accident that two members of the President's cabinet came West to speak upon the same subject and in the same terms," declared a famous western senator who heard the three addresses; "and Mr. Bryan's remarkable address upon trusts could hardly have been made without previous preparation and careful consideration. Those speeches undoubtedly define the issues of the next presidential campaign."

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The "Retreat"

CARING FOR THE OLD SOLDIER

HOW THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT PROVIDES HOMES FOR DISABLED VETERANS OF THE CIVIL WAR

BY

HENRY S. BURRAGE

BREVET MAJOR U. S. VOLUNTEERS, CHAPLAIN OF THE TOGUS BRANCH

ONE of the noteworthy ballads of the Civil War was written by Bishop Burgess, of Maine, in 1864. As the ballad runs, the Bishop was walking along the street with a little girl as his companion, and they passed a soldier. The soldier was a stranger, but the loyal Bishop recognized the uniform of his country's defenders, and he politely bowed. The girl at the Bishop's side asked him why he bowed. Did he know the man? "O, no!" he replied. He bowed, he said, because of

The blue great-coat, the sky-blue coat,
The old blue-coat the soldier wore.

He might have no skill to read or write,
Or he might be rich in learned lore;
But I knew he could make his mark in fight,
And nobler gown no scholar wore
Than the blue great-coat, the sky-blue coat,
The old blue-coat the soldier wore.

Perhaps it was seen in Burnside's ranks,
When Rappahannock ran dark with gore;
Perhaps on the mountain side with Banks,
In the burning sun, no more he wore
The blue great-coat, the sky-blue coat,
The old blue-coat the soldier wore.

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Perhaps in the swamps 'twas a bed for his form,
From the seven days' battling and marching sore,
Or with Kearney and Pope, 'mid the steely storm,
As the night closed in that coat he wore;
The blue great-coat, the sky-blue coat,
The old blue-coat the soldier wore.

STEELE'S CIRCLE AND THE HOSPITAL OF THE BRANCH AT MARION, INDIANA

Or when right over him Jackson dashed,
That collar or cape some bullet tore;
Or when far ahead Antietam flashed,
He flung to the ground the coat that he wore;
The blue great-coat, the sky-blue coat,
The old blue coat the soldier wore.

Or stood at Gettysburg, where the graves
Rang deep to Howard's cannon roar;
Or saw with Grant the unchained waves
Where conquering hosts the blue coat wore;
The blue great-coat, the sky-blue coat,
The old blue coat the soldier wore.

That garb of honor tells enough,
Though I its story guess no more;
The heart it covers is made of such stuff,
That the coat is mail which that soldier wore;
The blue great-coat, the sky-blue coat,
The old blue coat the soldier wore.

In some such sentiment concerning the nation's defenders during the Civil War the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers had its origin. The most generous provision throughout the war was made for the union army. Nothing was too good for the boys in blue, who met the successive calls that came from President Lincoln. No other government ever did so much for the welfare and maintenance of its soldiers or sailors as the government of the United States in the four battle years, 1861-1865.

This same generous provision for the union soldiers and sailors, and the families of those who died in the service, was continued after the close of the great struggle; indeed, it has characterized all the years that have followed the Civil War. The reports of the Pension Office furnish abundant evidence of the truth of this statement. The total amount paid to pensioners of the Civil War to the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1906, is $3,259,195,306.60.

But the government since the war has done more than this for the men who wore "the old blue coat." In different parts of the country, it has provided ten homes, or, rather, ten branches of its one national home for its disabled veterans. The need of such homes was seen even before the close of the Civil War, and March 3, 1865, Congress passed an act establishing "a military asylum" for the officers and men of the volunteer forces of the United States, who had been, or might afterward become, totally disabled. Among the incorporators named in the act were such prominent officers as Grant, Farragut, Sherman, Meade, Burnside,

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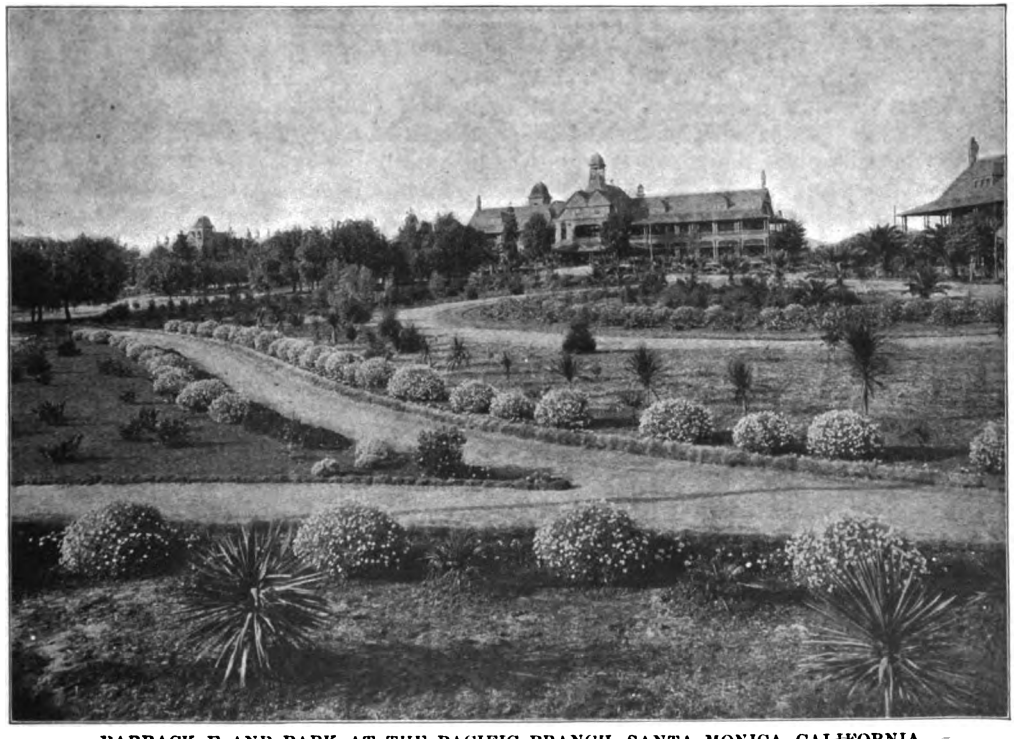
Hooker, Howard, Banks, Butler, Dodge and Schurz, and such prominent civilians as Hamlin, Chase, Stanton, Welles, Bancroft, Andrew, Curtin, Morton, Beecher, Fish, Wayland, Greeley, Raymond, Bennett, Evarts and Washburn. Immediate organization was not effected, but March 21, 1866, a revised act of incorporation establishing "The National Asylum for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers" was passed, providing for a board of managers consisting of the President of the United States, the Secretary of War, the Chief Justice of the United States and nine — afterward the number was increased to eleven — other citizens; and it was made their duty to procure for early use, at suitable places, sites for such "military asylums," and to have the necessary buildings erected, due regard being given to the health of the locality, facility of access and capacity to accommodate the persons provided for by the act.

The following were declared to be entitled to the benefits of the asylum: "All officers and soldiers who served in the late war for the purpose of suppressing the rebellion, and not provided for by existing laws, who may have been or may be disabled by wounds received or sickness contracted in the line of their duty," and it was required that "such of these as have neither wife, child nor parent dependent on them, on becoming inmates of this asylum, or receiving relief therefrom, shall assign their pensions, when required by the board of managers," during their connection with the asylum.

The term "asylum," however, was not deemed a happy one, and January 23, 1873, the act of incorporation was amended by inserting the word "home" in place of the word "asylum." There have been changes also in the eligibility section, which now extends the benefits of the home to "all honorably discharged officers, soldiers and sailors, who served in the regular or volunteer forces of the United States in any war in which the country was engaged, including the Spanish-American War, and the provisional army (authorized by act of Congress, approved March 2, 1899), who are disabled by disease, wounds or otherwise, and who have no adequate means of support, are not otherwise provided for by law, and by reason of such disability are incapable of earning their living."



BARRACK F AND PARK AT THE PACIFIC BRANCH, SANTA MONICA, CALIFORNIA

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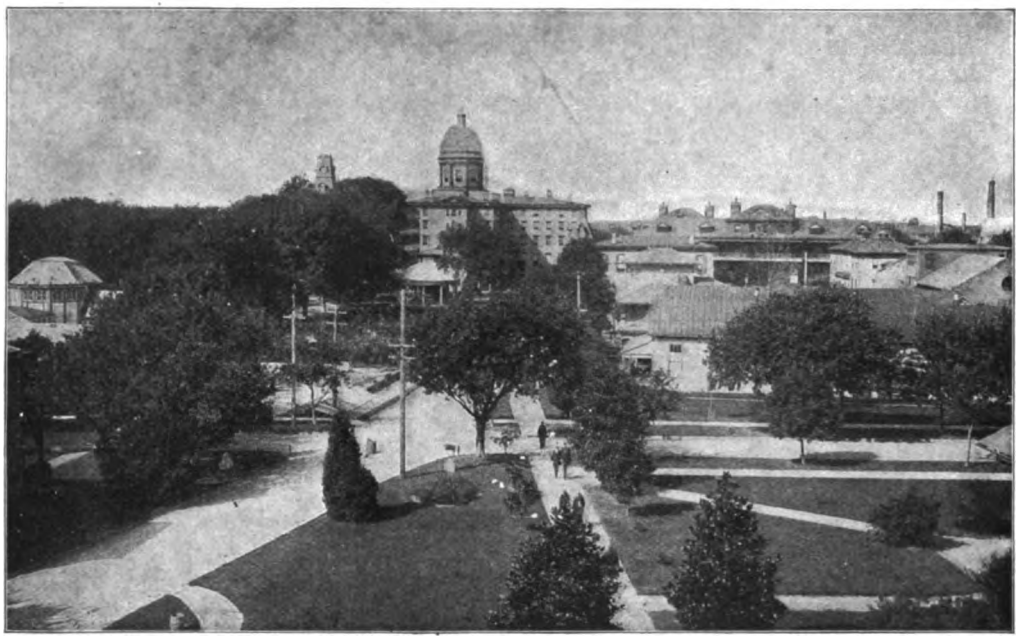

THE SOUTHERN BRANCH AT HAMPTON, VIRGINIA

The first home established under the action of Congress already cited, was located at Togus, near Augusta, Maine. This is now known as the "Eastern Branch of the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers." Authority for its establishment was secured by an act of Congress approved March 21, 1866. Evidently the location was determined by the fact that at this place there was an opportunity of securing at a cost of $50,000 property that cost a very much larger sum, and connected with which there were buildings that could easily be adapted to the required uses. By an act approved January 28, 1867, the State of Maine ceded to the United States jurisdiction over the land thus purchased (about 1,100 acres, since increased to 1,894 acres), and exonerated it from all state taxes and assessments. The state retained concurrent jurisdiction with the United States over the estate thus ceded in so far that all civil processes, issued under the authority of the state against any person or persons charged with crimes or offenses committed outside, may be executed therein in the same manner as though this cession had not been granted.

Other branches were subsequently added as follows: The Central Branch at Dayton, Ohio, in 1867; the Northwestern Branch at Milwaukee, Wisconsin, in 1867; the Southern Branch at Hampton, Virginia, in 1870; the Western Branch at Leavenworth, Kansas, in 1885; the Pacific Branch at Santa Monica, California, in 1887; the Marion Branch at Marion, Indiana, in 1888; the Danville Branch at Danville, Illinois, in 1897; the Mountain Branch at Johnson City, Tennessee, in 1901, and the Battle Mountain Sanitarium at Hot Springs, South Dakota, in 1902. Connected with these ten branches are 5,308 acres of land, of the value of $345,231.51. The buildings at these ten branches have an estimated value of $9,401,651.68.

The whole number admitted to the several branches of the home from its incorporation to June 30, 1905, is 131,302.* The annual membership of the home has steadily increased from the opening of the first branch. During the year end-

* Of these 16,317 were from Ohio; 14,529 from Pennsylvania; 14,042 from New York; 10,435 from Illinois; 9,941 from Indiana; 7,604 from Massachusetts; 7,561 from Missouri; 6,451 from Kansas; 6,295 from California; 5,239 from Wisconsin; 2,108 from Michigan; 2,824 from the District of Columbia; 2,392 from Maine; 2,336 from Kentucky; 2,239 from New Jersey; 1,954 from Virginia; 1,871 from Maryland; 1,823 from Iowa; 1,321 from Connecticut; 1,270 from Colorado; 1,139 from Rhode Island; 1,041 from Nebraska; and a smaller number from thirty other states and territories.

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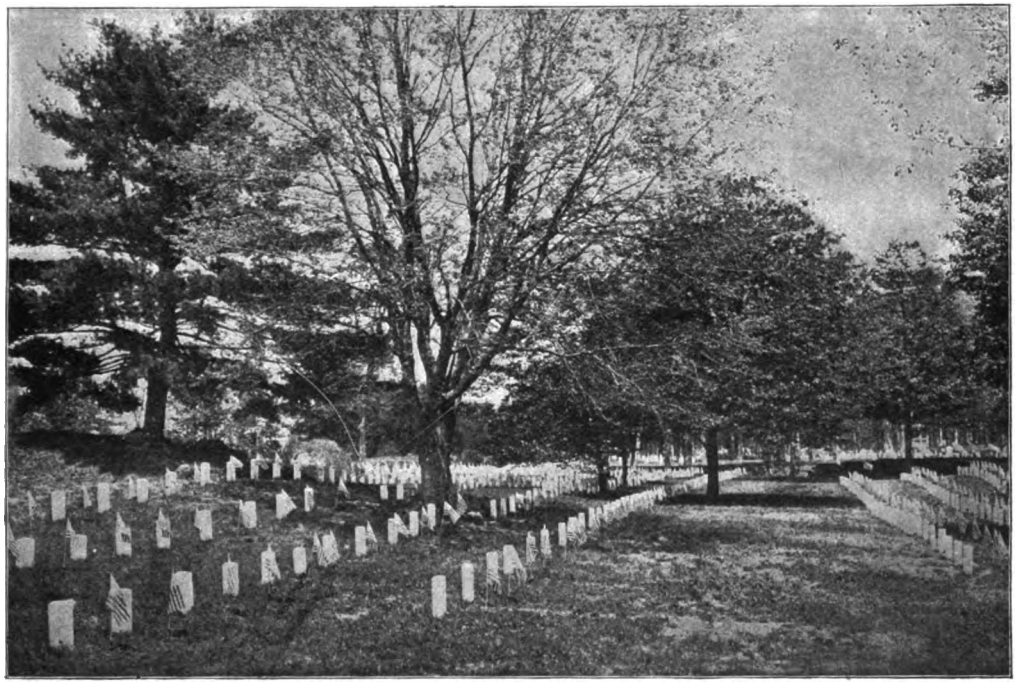
ing June 30, 1905, 34,053 members were cared for in the several branches. Of this number, 21,097 were maintained throughout the year. The gains in membership during the year by admissions, readmissions, etc., were 6,442, and the losses were 5,976, leaving a net gain of 466. Of these 34,053 members, the Mexican War furnished 165, the Civil War 32,839, the Spanish American War 843, and the provisional army 206. As to service, 1,416 were in the regular army, 30,881 in the volunteer army, and 1,756 in the navy.



THE NATIONAL CEMETERY AT TOGUS, MAINE

The members of the home, without expense to them, are provided with suitable clothing, including cap, hat, great coat, dress coat, blouse, vest, trousers, shoes, knit woolen shirts, canton-flannel drawers, woolen stockings, white cotton gloves and suspenders. The old army infantry colors for coats and trousers are retained. Any article of clothing is exchangeable for a corresponding new article when its condition warrants. Comfortable quarters for the members are provided in barracks. At each of the branches there is an up-to-date hospital, with a corps of efficient surgeons and nurses. Religious services, Protestant and Catholic, are held in attractive chapels. There are also libraries, reading-rooms, amusement halls, theaters, etc. Good music is provided by competent musicians. The amount expended at the eastern branch for amusements for the year ending June 30, 1905, was $17,928.96. If any member performs any service in the home, he is paid for it. The amount thus paid to the members of the home in all its branches during the year ending June 30, 1905, was $510,569.86.

The expenditures for all the branches during the year ending June 30, 1905, were $3,281,214.62.

The receipts of the national home for its maintenance since its organization to June 30, 1905, have been $75,662,342.79. Of this amount the sum of $56,862,577.65 was expended for maintenance, $13,600,897.81 for construction, and $309,253.06 for the purchase of land.

The present president of the board of managers is the Hon. Franklin Murphy, late governor of New Jersey, who entered the military service in the Thirteenth New Jersey Volunteer Infantry at sixteen

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years of age, and at the close of the war was mustered out as a first lieutenant at nineteen years of age. The headquarters of the board are in New York, and the executive officers of the home, other than the president already mentioned, are Major Moses Harris, general treasurer; Colonel W. E. Elwell, inspector-general and chief surgeon; Lieutenant-Colonel George B. Patrick, assistant general treasurer and assistant inspector-general; General Newton M. Curtis, and Lieutenant-Colonel Charles W. Wadsworth, assistant inspectors-general.

The methods of the War Department are followed in the management of the several branches of the home, and the branches are inspected annually, not only by the board of managers and by the inspector-general of the home, or one of the assistant inspectors-general, but also by one of the inspectors-general of the United States army under orders from the War Department.

The ages of the members of the home range from about fifty-six to one hundred years. In the year ending June 30, 1905, there were two members of the home who had rounded out a full century.

In point of diversity of character the members are not unlike what they were during the Civil War. Character tends to fixedness. Habits are not easily changed. Among the members of the home are many whom any man would be glad to know; and if there are others—as it was indeed in the Civil War, both in the army and navy—I find it hard to think anything unworthy of one who still wears the "old blue coat" of the long-ago days of the Civil War. Time has dealt not altogether kindly with the men in every respect. Many of them for years had good homes from which, for one cause or another, the light has gone out. In the hospital one day, I came to the bedside of a veteran eighty-five years old.

"Have you a wife?" I asked.

He said he had.

"And how old is she?" I inquired.

"Eighty-three," was the reply.

"Well," I added, "it is certainly hard for you to be separated at this time of life."

"Yes," he said, "but the pension money was not enough for us both, and so I came here in order that she might have it all."

Not a few of the men are without near kindred. It is a rare occurrence at the funerals at the home that a single relative of the older men is present. Those who knew and loved them in other and better days are gone. The veteran has outlived them all.

A word should be added concerning the beer hall, often called the canteen. The members of the board of managers and the officers of the several branches are men (need it be said?) who desire the highest welfare of the old soldiers. The establishment of the beer hall had no other object in view than to improve the conditions of the home. An old drink-habit is not easily cured. The greatest foe to good order in all the branches is this old habit. The liquor-seller, in prohibition and non-prohibition states, is at hand ready to tempt the old soldier in order to get his money. He hangs about the outskirts of the reservation, or lures his victim to the saloon, and places worse than the saloon. The beer hall, by the sale of beer to the old soldiers within the limits of the reservation, and under the restrictions of the home, is a restrictive measure; and the results, according to the testimony of the officers of the several branches, prove it. The conditions are vastly better, so far as good order is concerned, than they were before the establishment of the beer hall. Those conditions are not ideal. Far from it. But they might be a great deal worse, and they were a great deal worse, when the men were compelled to go outside the limits of the camp in order to meet the cravings of an old habit. It is not to be forgotten that these are old men. Most of them are between sixty-five and eighty years of age. I have a large amount of pity for those upon whom the drink habit has so strongly fastened its chains. I wish they would "touch not, taste not, handle not." But I greatly prefer, from what I have learned in the home, that they should go to the beer hall for beer than to the miserable rum-holes into which many of them will be lured for stronger drink, we have every reason to fear, if the action of the last Congress concerning the beer hall is allowed to stand.

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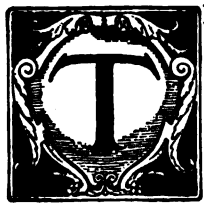
GUATEMALA: A LAND OF OPPORTUNITIES

BY

NEVIN O. WINTER.



THERE is a great deal of ignorance and wrong conception concerning the little republics of Central America. Mexico has been exploited a great deal in recent years, and the location of Panama is now pretty generally known, but the five republics lying between these two countries have been too much overlooked by recent writers. We are sometimes inclined to appropriate the term republic and the name Americans to ourselves, as though we held a copyright on these words. And yet here at our very doors are five nations, each of whom lays great stress on the term republic as applied to itself and proudly calls its citizens Americanos.

The ideas of many concerning the Central American republics are drawn from the play-life of popular novels and the comic-opera stage. It is true that there is some foundation for their portrayal of life along the Caribbean Sea, and that there are many things approaching the burlesque to our eyes. When our boat stopped at the last Mexican port, San Benito, on the Pacific Coast, the news was brought on board that a former president of Guatemala with twenty-five followers armed to the teeth was camped on the border ready to march across the country and raise the banner of revolution. When we landed at Champerico the country was under martial law, and we were obliged to report immediately to the *Commandante* and give a full account of ourselves. This movement did finally culminate in a slight revolution during the past summer, but its effect on business was slight. The

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autograph collector in the form of a barefooted soldier of the comic-opera type, made his appearance about a dozen times before the capital was reached. Then when a handful of paper bills are thrust out to you in exchange for a few of Uncle Sam's gold coins at the ratio of twelve or twenty to one with the American Eagle stamped thereon, you feel as reckless in your expenditures as the stage millionaire with his play money.

There is, however, a more serious side to life in these countries, and there are thousands of Guatemaleans, Honduraneans, Costa Ricans, San Salvadoreans and Nicaraguans, who are seriously trying to solve the problem of self-government, and they are improving each year. The spirit of adventure was inherited by them from their Spanish ancestors, and it can only be overcome entirely by education, immigration and the general infusion of saner ideas. A whole country can not be plowed up and resown in a season, as the corn-fields of last year were transformed by the farmers into the waving fields of golden grain this year. It is a long and hard task that is before these struggling Spanish Americans, but they are now on the right road and will win. They deserve our sympathetic consideration rather than ridicule

Guatemala is a country of great natural resources and is the largest and most important of the Central American republics. It has rich mineral deposits. Its soil is extremely fertile and, with a territory little larger than the State of Ohio, its productions are as varied as in the whole of the United States with its vast expanse of territory. The climate varies from the tropical lowlands of the Atlantic and Pacific coasts to the cool uplands of the interior where snow occasionally falls. The wealth of Guatemala is and probably always will be in agriculture. The prospective plantation-owner has a wide variety of products to select from, any one of which will yield much larger returns than farming in colder climates. The soil is in places many feet deep and seemingly inexhaustible. When one discovers that three crops of corn can be successfully raised in one year in this tropical land, one has a little idea of the possibilities of agriculture in the tropics.

Slowly but surely Guatemala is raising itself out of the rut of three centuries of Spanish rule. The adventurers who carried the flag of Spain into the New World were men of great physical endurance, but possessed of little character, and that little dwarfed by their lust for gold. They were soldiers of fortune who came to destroy and not to create. By the aid of thousands of native laborers whom they impressed into service, the capital, Guatemala city, was constructed. Long before New York was more than a second-rate town, this city was noted for its wealth and learning, and was surpassed in importance only by Lima, Peru, and the City of Mexico. It was twice destroyed by volcanic disturbances, after which the capital was removed to the present site, which is in a broad, beautiful valley at an elevation of nearly five thousand feet, surrounded by picturesque mountains, and with the extinct volcanoes of Agua (water) and Fuego (fire) in plain view. Guatemala City has an ideal climate which does not vary more than about twenty degrees during the entire year, and is delightful in winter and in summer. Seventy-five thousand people live here. Spaniards, Indians and *Mestizos*, with a sprinkling of Germans and Americans, are trying to solve the problem of life and existence under favoring skies.

Twenty-one years ago the awakening came. In that year the railroad was opened from Guatemala City to San Jose on the Pacific, a distance of seventy-five miles. Recently another line has been opened connecting the capital with Champerico, another Pacific port. Even progress must have its siesta here in this land of "wait-a-while." No one improvement would be of such an advantage to this country as a railway from the Gulf to the Pacific. This has long been realized, and it was the pet project of President Barrios. Twelve years ago the Guatemala Northern was completed and opened for traffic from Puerto Barrios, on the Gulf, a distance of one hundred and twenty-nine miles, and to within seventy miles of Guatemala City. The government then became bankrupt and leased the road. Having no good terminals the road was never a paying proposition, so that the line was allowed to deteriorate.

The difficulties in the operation of rail-

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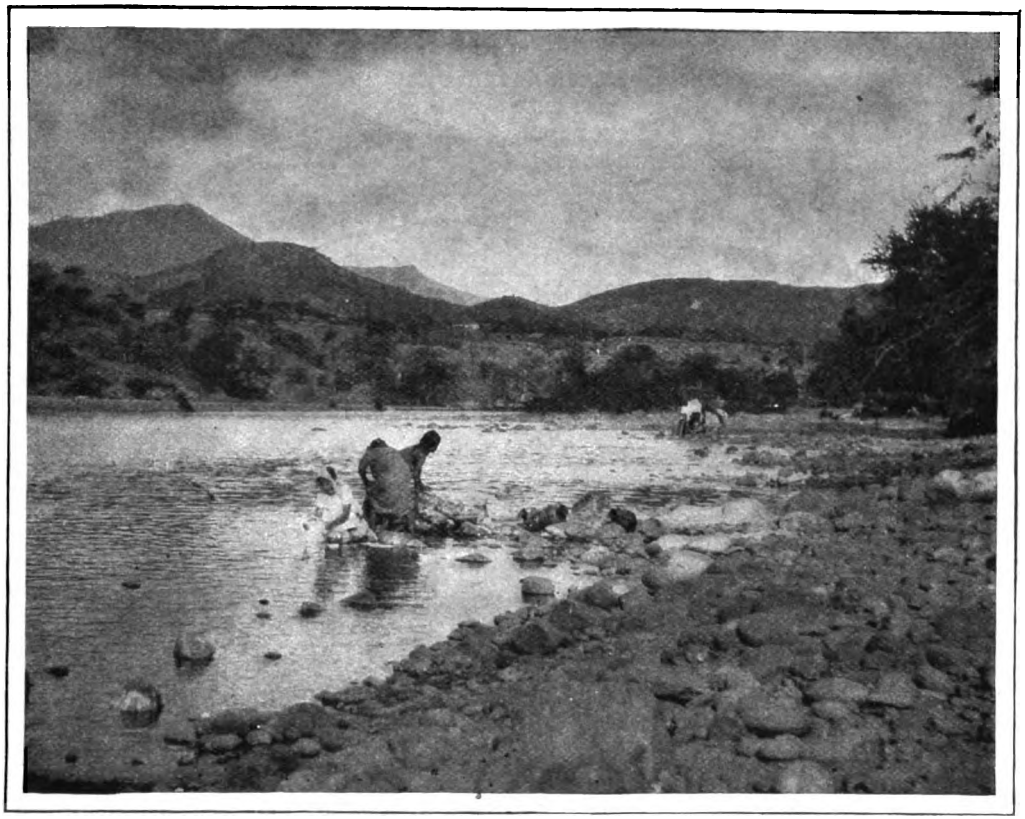

ONE OF THE RIVERS IN GUATEMALA
The natives have their washing on the stones

roads in the tropics are many, and they were all encountered here. The ties soon decayed and in the rainy season the streams became torrents, which washed away bridges and tracks along the banks. The rolling-stock was likewise neglected. One train a day is now run over this line, which makes connection with the weekly steamer from New Orleans, and it takes two days to cover the one hundred and twenty-nine miles. The passenger does not care to go faster, for in some places there are scarcely two ties to each rail that will hold a spike. The government has now secured the services of Sir William Van Horne, who built the Canadian Pacific and Cuban railways, and men are at work reconstructing the road and building new bridges. They are also at work on the extension to the capital, which will connect the Atlantic and Pacific with iron rails before many months have passed. A branch is also projected into San Salvador, which will be of great advantage to the United States in securing the trade of that republic.

The completion of this road ought to give the United States a monopoly of the export and import trade of Guatemala. At present shipments have been made by a circuitous and expensive route via San Francisco or Panama, so that freight charges are almost as great as from Europe. With this road completed Guatemala City could be reached in four days or less from New Orleans. For this and other reasons the United States has not been getting its fair and legitimate proportions of the trade of Guatemala and other Central American countries.

The American salesman does not understand the Spanish-American character and does not enter into sympathy with its business methods. These must be studied by the American merchant just as his English and German competitors have

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done. The American drummer, accustomed to the strenuous life in his own country, arrives in a town, calls on prospective buyers, and expects to leave on an afternoon train. He has no patience with Señor Don's "to-morrow." As the Spaniard is not very particular whether he buys or not, the American will depart without orders and with a feeling of disgust toward the country and its people. You might just as well try to change the color of the Guatemalean as his habits, and the firm that wishes to secure trade here must study the conditions and meet them.

English and German houses have for many decades controlled trade in Spanish-America. They keep their old men on the route as long as possible, for a new man will not do much on his first trip. One English salesman whom I met in Mexico, and with whom I traveled to Guatemala City, was a fair example of the European drummer. He had made this trip every year for many years, was thoroughly conversant with the language, and understood the ways of the people. We both stopped at the Grand Hotel, and I had an opportunity of studying his business methods. For a week he did nothing but make social calls on his customers, take them to the theater and entertain them in a general way. The second week he invited them to his rooms to inspect his stock, which was large and varied. Not until the third week did he take any orders, but those secured were large and repaid for the time taken. The average American commercial traveler could hardly have contented himself during the week's wait necessary to catch the next boat, but this representative of an English house devoted one month to that city and thought nothing of it. The people prefer American goods and, with like credit of nine months or more and the same business methods, the merchants would buy American manufactures in preference to European.

Guatemala is a corruption of an Indian word, which means "the land covered with trees." Many valuable woods are found in the forests. The extent of the forest lands which abound in mahogany, ebony, logwood and other valuable hardwoods, and much of which has never been fully explored, is estimated at a million and a half of acres. This timber land can be bought cheap, but the great problem is to get the product to market. The streams are not large enough to float the timber to the coast, and under the labor conditions it is a difficult matter to construct the necessary tramways. However, an energetic firm with money and pluck can secure a return more sure and no less remunerative than a good gold mine.

Coffee was introduced into Guatemala from Arabia by the Spanish priests. It was found to be suited to the soil and climate and to-day is the most valuable export of the country. The exports have reached as high as eighty-five millions of pounds in a single year. The grade is choice and brings a high price in the market. Most of it is sent to Europe, as it is a common saying throughout Mexico and Central America that only the poor grades of coffee are sent to the United States. This is rather a slur on the tastes of the American people, but such is our reputation down there.

Coffee trees will grow on land at an elevation of from one to six thousand feet. They begin to bear at four years and a plantation of bearing trees is very valuable. However, they require careful nursing during the first few years and sometimes a bad season will cause great injury to the growing trees. Last year there was an unusually large crop and the profits to the grower were correspondingly gratifying. An earthquake a few years ago nearly destroyed Quezaltenango, the second largest city, and destroyed many coffee plantations along the Pacific slope.

Banana cultivation was the one thing that appealed to me most forcibly. The returns are quick, the income regular and the profits large. Great fortunes have been made by banana-growers in Costa Rica and Honduras, and are awaiting the planter here in Guatemala. The Guatemala Northern Railway runs through the heart of the banana country, and there are weekly steamers from Puerto Barrios and Livingston to New Orleans and Mobile.

The government is doing everything possible to encourage the cultivation of the soil. Most of it has never been cleared of the dense tropical growth of trees, vines and underbrush. Title can be purchased for a very small sum per acre if assurance is given that it will be cultivated. The

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A STREET IN GUATEMALA CITY
Guatemala is evidently not accustomed to motor-cars

preparation of the ground is very simple. The trees and underbrush are cut down and left on the ground to decay, which will not take more than a year. The banana plants are set among the piles of underbrush. After nine months or a year the plants will begin to bear. Each stalk will produce one bunch of bananas. The stalk is then cut down and a new one, or several, will spring up from the roots, and will bear in the same length of time. Thus a banana plantation that is carefully looked after will produce a marketable crop each week in the year, so that there is a constant revenue coming in to the owner.

Sugar-cane can be raised very profitably, as the stalks grow high with many joints and have a greater percentage of saccharine than in most countries where it is cultivated. Furthermore, it does not require replanting so frequently. At present about the only use to which the cane is devoted here is in the manufacture of "white eye," the native brandy.

Rubber grows wild in the forests and has been planted successfully. The government will give one *manzana* (113.62 acres) of land as a bonus for every two thousand rubber plants set out for cultivation. Cacao planting is now a very profitable undertaking. It is from the cacao bean that chocolate is made. Tobacco, sarsaparilla, hemp, and grapes can be successfully cultivated. The government is now making an effort to foster the cultivation of hemp, cotton and grapes by offering to exempt from taxation for ten years lands devoted to their cultivation.

The great problem with all enterprises in Guatemala is that of labor. Five-sixths of the population are of Indian or mixed blood, and by this class all the labor is done that is done. The Indians will only work spasmodically. Under certain circumstances the political governors can compel them to work, but this can not exceed fourteen days at one time. Then they can draw their pay and leave. The plantation owners overcome this by ad-

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vancing the Indian a certain sum of money, and then the law compels him to work until the debt is paid under a system of peonage. Once in debt he seldom gets out of debt. Each plantation has an alcalde, or mayor, who has the power to enforce the labor laws, and he can put the recreant laborer in the jail, or in the stocks, if he refuses to work. Or he can summon the soldiers to hunt him up and bring him back if he attempts to escape. Another *mozo*, or servant, is often taken as security for the one employed.

The law provides that all contracts for labor covering a period of one month or more be in writing. Among other things the *mozo* binds himself as follows: not to absent himself from the plantation under any condition or pretext without previous permission in writing; to pay all the cost necessary to secure his return in case he should flee, rendering himself subject to whatever punishment is adjudged against him by the authorities; each member of his family shall be responsible for that which he or she receives; the *mozo* who goes security, be he man or woman, assumes the same responsibility and liability as the one who is employed.

Like all Spanish-American countries Guatemala must be developed by outside capital, and none offer greater opportunities. The shrewd American with a little capital and a good deal of patience can, in a few years, acquire a fair competence. There are openings for small manufacturing enterprises, but Guatemala will never, in my estimation, be a manufacturing country. The labor is cheap but unsatisfactory for that kind of work. Many minerals, including gold and silver, are found in paying quantities. Commerce offers great inducements to Americans, who can and should control the trade. Agriculture, however, offers the greatest and surest returns. If the plantation owner does not care to cultivate tropical products, he can raise corn. The natives are great consumers of this food, and yet not enough is raised to supply home demands, although several crops can be produced in one year. Cattle-raising is another profitable line in which to engage. Railroads are needed and concessions are easy to obtain. It is the undeveloped country that offers the best opportunity for the man of modest means but of good judgment and with plenty of energy. The man of larger means can do equally as well in the greater enterprises.

MAKING SUN-DRIED BRICK

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MAKING A SERVANT OF ALCOHOL

AN ACCOUNT OF THE USES AND POSSIBILITIES OF DENATURED ALCOHOL

BY

DAVID A. GATES

For thirteen years Mr. Gates has been in the Internal Revenue Department. For several months he was engaged in an investigation of denatured alcohol, and rendered expert assistance in drawing up the bill passed by the last Congress. His paper possesses, therefore, an importance not to be found in many of the recent articles on the subject.

WITH the passage of the "Denatured Alcohol Law" an unnatural burden on an important industrial agent was removed. In 1863 an internal revenue tax of 20 cents a proof gallon was placed on ethyl alcohol. It was a war measure, but was an easy and popular method of taxation, hence it remained a permanent part of our fiscal system. The tax was increased to 50 cents, then to 70 cents, then to $2; then it was reduced to 90 cents. The Wilson bill in 1894 increased it to $1.10 a gallon. A proof gallon is a wine gallon, fifty per cent alcohol and fifty per cent water. The tax on a gallon of commercial alcohol, ninety-four per cent pure, is therefore approximately $2.07. Of the $750,000,000 in taxes, including postal revenues, raised by the government annually, nearly one-fifth comes from distilled spirits.

The tax has practically prohibited the use of ethyl alcohol in the arts and industries and in a domestic way. There really never was any more reason for taxing industrial and domestic alcohol than there was for taxing such commodities as gas, coal or petroleum; but the tax was placed on alcohol, the beverage, and incidentally alcohol was driven from the domestic and industrial world. Before a tax was placed on alcohol it was extensively used for lighting purposes. Petroleum products were discovered and the question of cheap fuel and light to take the place of untaxed ante-bellum alcohol was, in part, solved. For years, however, ethyl alcohol, though heavily taxed, was largely used in the industries. In 1890, it was estimated that ten million gallons (proof) went into the various manufactures.

Competition, however, with foreign goods, in the manufacture of which tax-free alcohol was used, forced our manufacturers to look for substitutes for tax-paid alcohol, with the result that American genius found many cheap solvents, the products of wood distillation, fusel oil (a by-product at grain distilleries) and turpentine being the principal. In 1885 less than a million gallons of wood alcohol was manufactured in the United States; now the annual production is nearly ten million gallons. The annual consumption of tax-paid ethyl alcohol in the industries is now less than a million commercial gallons.

It has been urged that wood alcohol, for both hygienic and economic reasons, is unsatisfactory, and the growing demand for ethyl alcohol to be restored to its natural status as an industrial agent resulted in the "Denatured Alcohol Law." The law taxing distilled spirits has not been changed. The free alcohol bill simply provides that alcohol produced under governmental supervision at a registered distillery may be withdrawn from bond free of tax for use in the arts and industries, and for fuel, light and power, provided it is *denatured* in such a manner as to destroy its character as a

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beverage and render it unfit for liquid medicinal purposes.

Following as we did most European nations in providing legislation imposing a tax on alcohol, we have likewise been followers in giving free alcohol to the industries. All European countries of importance long since made provision for free industrial alcohol. Germany, France, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Belgium, Austria-Hungary, Norway and Sweden have given to the factories and the farmer tax-free ethyl alcohol. Agitation in this country for free alcohol in the industries began in 1888, when a committee of Congress was appointed to investigate the question. This committee was divided in opinion as to the practicability of a denatured alcohol law and nothing resulted. The Wilson bill of 1894 provided for tax-free alcohol for certain industrial purposes, but the law was so defective that it was not possible to prescribe regulations under it that would safeguard the revenue. The demand for free alcohol increased, however, and though the wood alcohol interests made a determined fight against it last spring, the sentiment in favor of the free alcohol bill was so well-nigh universal that it passed by an almost unanimous vote.

The denatured alcohol law is barren of detail, yet it is a most elastic, liberal and comprehensive measure. The line between the uses to which tax-free alcohol *can* and *can not* be put is clearly drawn. On the one side are beverages and liquid medicinal preparations; on the other side is everything else. Free alcohol can not be used as a beverage or in the manufacture of a beverage or a liquid medicinal preparation; it can be used in the manufacture of everything else.

It may be inquired what reason there is against using free alcohol in the manufacture of liquid medicinal preparations. The answer is that it would not be possible to administer a law permitting alcohol to be so used. Alcohol goes into the manufacture of many honest medicines. It retains its beverage qualities in these medicines. Alcohol likewise goes into the manufacture of many dishonest medicines manufactured for sale in prohibition communities. It is not practicable to draw the line between honest and dishonest medicines. Permit the use of tax-free alcohol in the manufacture of liquid medicines, and the saloons would go out of the business of selling beverages and into that of dealing in "liquid medicinal preparations." It is a wise provision of the law, therefore, that excludes free alcohol in the manufacture of anything that can be used as a beverage.

The saving clause in the free alcohol law for many industries is that authorizing special denaturants. Ethyl alcohol denatured with methyl alcohol (the general denaturant adopted by the Internal Revenue Bureau) will be unfit for use in many of the industries in which tax-free alcohol can be used, hence in order to give the law the full scope it was intended to give it, special denaturants were necessary. The best results with denatured alcohol have been accomplished in such countries as Germany, where the laws and departmental regulations are liberal in permitting special denaturation.

Since the passage of the "Denatured Alcohol Law" there has been considerable speculation as to the quantity of denatured alcohol that will be consumed in this country. Some of the most enthusiastic friends of the law have predicted that in a short time the annual consumption will aggregate two hundred million gallons. The wood alcohol people in their argument last spring before the ways and means committee, fixed ten million gallons as the maximum of the denatured product that would go into consumption. Any estimates as to the quantity of tax-free alcohol that is going to be used in this country are more or less speculation, but leaving out of consideration the quantity that will be used in a domestic way, it is reasonably certain that denatured alcohol will serve six purposes:

1st. Tax-paid alcohol is used to an extent in this country in the manufacture of aniline dyes, electrical apparatus, transparent soaps, furniture, picture moldings, solid medicinal extracts and pillular medicinal preparations; also in the manufacture of tobacco. An average of four gallons of one hundred-proof rum is used in a thousand pounds of tobacco, making a total of one million three hundred thousand gallons of proof rum used in the tobacco manufacturing industry. Outside of the tobacco industry the quantity of tax-paid alcohol used industrially

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has been fixed at about two hundred and sixty thousand commercial gallons. This includes some industries in which denatured alcohol can not, under the recent law, be used. Including all industries in which denatured alcohol can be substituted for tax-paid alcohol, the annual consumption of denatured alcohol can safely be fixed at nine hundred thousand commercial gallons.

2d. Something like seven million five hundred thousand gallons of wood alcohol are consumed annually in the manufacture of hats, shellac varnish, celluloid, furniture, paints, etc. Wood alcohol of a degree of refinement necessary for these industries costs 70 cents a gallon. Denatured ethyl alcohol at 30 to 35 cents a gallon will easily displace all the wood alcohol used in said industries. Aside from the question of cost, the use of wood alcohol in many industries is objectionable because it destroys the sight and health of the men employed in them. It requires a gill and a third of alcohol to cut the shellac used in a hat. The difference between the cost price of tax-paid alcohol at $2.50 a gallon and that of wood alcohol at 70 cents has been sufficient to force the use of the health-destroying wood product. The cost of hats, furniture, etc., will not be reduced sufficiently for the consumers of these articles to derive much benefit, but the cost of shellac varnish will be reduced materially, and the consumer will get the benefit of the reduction. Best of all, the condition from a hygienic standpoint of the thousands of laborers who work in the industries in which poisonous wood alcohol is used will be materially improved.

3d. Either ethyl alcohol or incompletely denatured alcohol is used in the manufacture of fulminate of mercury, an article used in making a class of explosives. As a result of the tax on ethyl alcohol, manufacturers of fulminate have established their plants across the line in Canada, exported ethyl alcohol from the United States to Canada, have used it free of tax and have imported the finished product to the United States. With alcohol tax-free, all the fulminate of mercury used in the United States will be manufactured here. It is estimated that three hundred thousand commercial gallons will be used annually in this industry.

4th. Great Britain supplies us with transparent soap, and Germany sells us nearly all our aniline dyes, because denatured alcohol is cheaper in those countries than wood alcohol is here, making it impossible for manufacturers using wood alcohol here to compete with manufacturers using denatured alcohol in those countries. This applies to an extent to scores of other industries. Denatured alcohol will place manufacturers using alcohol on an equal footing with manufacturers in other countries. Industries which unnatural conditions growing out of the tax on industrial alcohol have made it impossible to be established here, are bound to develop.

5th. Among the solvents consumed in this country are fusel oil to the extent of two million gallons annually, turpentine to the extent of eighteen million gallons and petroleum to the extent of many million gallons. A few years ago, fusel oil, a by-product at grain distilleries, was supposed to be worthless. Now its commercial value is $1.25 to $1.50 a gallon, and we are importing it from England and Mexico. Ethyl alcohol, gallon for gallon, is not equivalent to fusel oil, but ethyl alcohol at 35 cents will certainly take the place of some of the two million gallons of fusel oil. It is estimated that denatured alcohol will displace at least four million five hundred thousand gallons of turpentine used as a solvent, the price of turpentine being from 60 to 70 cents a gallon. Denatured alcohol will also displace some of the petroleum solvents, but it is not possible to estimate the extent to which it will do so.

6th. A suggestion of what alcohol may accomplish as an industrial agent is furnished in the fact that fully 112 uses have already been discovered for it. Artificial silk, a product of cotton and alcohol, is a comparatively recent discovery. The principal artificial silk plant using alcohol is in France. This establishment uses six thousand gallons of denatured alcohol daily in the manufacture of four thousand pounds of silk. The best market for these goods is in the United States, and a representative of the French company appearing before the House committee last spring stated that it was the intention of his company to establish a plant here provided the denatured alcohol bill

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passed. Cheap alcohol and cotton and a ready demand for the product here should develop the Chardonnet silk industry here far beyond what it is in France. The French plant consumes two million gallons of alcohol annually and employs two thousand men. The feminine contingent will doubtless be glad to know that Chardonnet silk is such a perfect imitation that only an expert can tell it from the genuine article. Other industries of more value than the artificial silk industry will unquestionably follow as soon as cheap alcohol justifies the inventive Yankee mind in going to work on the alcohol question.

But while alcohol is the cheapest of solvents and the cheapness of it, if nothing else, will result in the displacement of the wood products by denatured alcohol, the question of the successful use of denatured alcohol as a producer of light, heat and power is involved in doubt. True, monopoly has kept all petroleum products at such prices as to build up fabulous fortunes for the owners of the monopoly, but even at the prices at which petroleum products are sold, it is questionable if the cost of denatured alcohol will not make it more expensive for domestic uses than are gasoline and kerosene. In speculating upon the possibilities of denatured alcohol as a competitor of the oil companies' goods, the question of cost is the only question to be considered.

The sources of alcohol manufactured for tax payment in this country are grain, fruit and molasses. The raw material necessary for a gallon of alcohol 188-proof is 4½ bushels of fruit, 4-11 of a bushel of grain, or 2 gallons of molasses. In the distillation of fruit and molasses there are no by-products; the first cost of alcohol produced from fruit or molasses therefore is the cost of the raw material, the labor, and the interest on the investment. The by-products at a grain distillery (stock feed and fusel oil) will pay the cost of operating, the labor and the interest on the investment. The cost of alcohol produced from grain is therefore represented in the price of the grain. The first cost of a gallon of alcohol from fruit will not fall short of $1.25, so the prospects of the orchards driving the oil kings out of business are not flattering.

The cheapest "black-strap" molasses used in the production of alcohol has sold as low as 3 cents a gallon. It is now worth about 7 cents. This molasses is of little value on the sugar plantation and has sold at a cent a gallon at the place of production; transportation is the principal element of cost. At such points as Boston, where molasses is imported from Cuba, the cost of a gallon of commercial alcohol produced from molasses will average between 17 and 18 cents. If it can be produced at these figures in Boston, where molasses is 7 cents a gallon, it ought to be produced for considerably less in southern Louisiana, where a distillery can be so located as to take the output of molasses from a group of sugar factories and thereby reduce the cost of transportation to a minimum. The cost of transporting molasses from Cuba to such points as Tampa and Key West, Florida, is much less than the freight charges from Cuba to Boston, hence the cost of manufacturing alcohol at the Gulf coast towns will certainly be less than at Boston. In Hawaii, millions of gallons of "black-strap" molasses are thrown away annually. Since the passage of the denatured alcohol law, the Hawaiian sugar manufacturers are considering the question of putting up distilleries for the purpose of manufacturing alcohol for denaturation. They claim that they can produce alcohol at a first cost of not exceeding 12 cents a gallon. Under normal conditions it would seem that alcohol from molasses ought to be produced in this country at an average of 15 cents a gallon.

The average cost of a gallon of alcohol from grain will be several cents above 15 cents. With corn at 43 cents a bushel, a gallon of alcohol manufactured at a modern distillery will cost about 20 cents. The grain used at a distillery manufacturing alcohol consists of about eighty-five per cent corn and fifteen per cent malt and rye. With corn at less than 30 cents a bushel, alcohol has been produced at a little less than 11 cents a gallon.

Ethyl alcohol is produced by the fermentation of sugar or starch, hence it is simply a question of whether a thing containing sugar or starch can profitably be used in the manufacture of alcohol. In Germany, potatoes have been largely used in the manufacture of it. The average

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quantity of fermentable matter in potatoes is 20 per cent, and a bushel of potatoes will produce about 5/6 of a gallon of alcohol. Potatoes unfit for human consumption will produce as much alcohol, bushel for bushel, as the better varieties. The yield per acre of these cheap varieties is double that of the varieties suitable for human food. Secretary Wilson, in his statement before the ways and means committee last spring, said that it was quite within bounds to place the yield in alcohol from an acre of potatoes at five hundred gallons. The special adaptability of the soil and climate in many sections of this country to produce potatoes will make the potato an important factor in the question of the production of alcohol.

Considerable investigation has been made of the other sources of alcohol. Actual experiment has demonstrated that there is as much alcohol in the stalks of an acre of corn as there is in the corn; but to use the stalks in the manufacture of alcohol they must be harvested at a time when the corn is maturing. If, at the proper time, the stalk could be harvested and preserved for future use then those who are searching for cheap light, heat and power could stop at the corn-stalk and exclaim, "Here we rest!" for there is enough alcohol in the corn-stalks grown in the United States to supply the world.

Wood sawdust is another source of ethyl alcohol. If experiments now being made in southern Mississippi in a process of producing ethyl alcohol from the fermentable matter in wood sawdust prove successful and it is found that the millions of tons of sawdust now thrown away can be utilized in the production of so important an agent as alcohol, there will be no limit to what may reasonably be expected from tax-free alcohol.

At present, however, we must look to molasses, potatoes and corn, in the order named, as the producer of cheap alcohol. Alcohol produced first cost at 15 cents a gallon will prove a sharp competitor of gasoline and kerosene. The government stands all cost of supervision; therefore, the only burdens that denatured alcohol will carry into the market will be the cost of the ethyl alcohol, the labor incident to denaturation and the cost of the denaturing agent. The denaturing agents will be efficient both as denaturants and in the use to which the alcohol is put; therefore, the cost of denaturation will be reduced to a minimum. The first cost of denatured alcohol with ethyl alcohol at 15 cents a gallon will be about 20 cents a gallon. Adding 5 cents a gallon as profit for the distiller and the middleman, the best that can be expected with ethyl alcohol at 15 cents a gallon first cost will be 25 cents a gallon. Actual experiment has shown that ethyl alcohol as a producer of light has twice the value of kerosene. Denatured alcohol at 25 cents a gallon could therefore compete with kerosene as a producer of light at 12½ cents a gallon.

Recent experiments in France have demonstrated that the thermal efficiency of ethyl alcohol is sixty-five per cent greater than that of gasoline. On this basis alcohol at 25 cents a gallon as a heat producer would be as cheap as gasoline at 15 cents a gallon.

Alcohol as a motor fuel in internal combustion engines has been shown by experiment to be equally as efficient as gasoline. A pound of alcohol produces as much power as a pound of gasoline. If price alone controlled, alcohol would not displace gasoline as a producer of power unless gasoline should rise in price to 25 cents a gallon. But other considerations, aside from cost, make alcohol as a motor fuel preferable to gasoline. Gasoline is highly inflammable; alcohol is not. Many farmers can not secure insurance with gasoline stored on their premises; there is no such objection to alcohol. Gasoline is also at a disadvantage as a power producer because of the offensive exhaust gases; no disagreeable odors attend the use of alcohol. Alcohol is both safer and more agreeable to use than gasoline. With the price of the two articles only a few cents apart alcohol ought to displace gasoline to an extent as a power producer.

Before the discovery of petroleum products, with alcohol tax-free, millions of gallons were used for light and heat. To-day in Germany the annual consumption of denatured alcohol in the production of light, heat and power is over twenty-six million gallons; but there are no domestic petroleum products in Germany, and a heavy import tax on these

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products raises the price at which they go to the consumer. Furthermore there is a bounty on potatoes, and alcohol is produced largely from potatoes. So that there are special reasons for petroleum products being high and alcohol being cheap in Germany. Alcohol is said to go to the consumer at less than the cost of production. But while the cost of alcohol is low in Germany, the cost of denaturants is high for the reason that they are all imported. Both alcohol and the denaturants will be produced in the United States.

In Louisiana and Hawaii with cheap molasses, in Kansas and Nebraska where corn often sells for 30 cents a bushel, and in sections of the Northwest, where the soil is specially adapted to the production of potatoes, alcohol can be produced at very low figures. Gasoline and kerosene are high in those sections, because they are remote from the petroleum fields. It is especially fortunate, therefore, that conditions for the production of cheap alcohol are exceptionally favorable in those localities where the price of petroleum products is high.

OUR YEARLY EXODUS TO EUROPE

BY

J. M. CAMPBELL

THE last passenger had gone aboard, the gangway had been drawn in and the great bow of the "fastest and most luxurious of leviathans" was gradually slipping away from the crowded pier.

There were, perhaps, eight hundred cabin passengers aboard her. On the pier as many more men and women had assembled to say good-bye to departing friends. Among these latter was the general passenger agent of a certain western railroad. He had come to New York to see his family start on a three months' tour of Europe. As the steamship slowly gathered speed for its six-day flight to Europe, he turned to a friend, standing beside him, and said, "Bill, there's a million dollars of good American money aboard that ship that is lost to this country for good and all. Figure it out yourself. Eight hundred people. A thousand dollars apiece, to say nothing of passage money. We railroaders think we're smart. But are we? This country has as good hotels and as fine scenery as Europe has. Why can't we induce people to stay at home and spend their money where they make it?"

Two piers south, another "greyhound," with every berth occupied, was getting under way. Three others had already sailed that morning and four more would depart before the day was over.

All in all, four thousand people were due to leave New York that day. And New York, though the largest, is not the only port from which passenger steamers for Europe sail at regular intervals.

Think what this means—four thousand transatlantic travelers sailing from one city in one day. Do you wonder that railroad passenger agents grow serious? For the people who are going to Europe are not "trippers." They are not the sort of men and women who stop at dollar-a-day hotels and take traction car excursions to the country on Sundays. They are the people to whom our seashore, lake and mountain hotel proprietors look for a living. It is for them that tennis courts and golf courses are laid out. Ten years ago, they spent their summers in the Adirondacks or along the Maine coast or in the White Mountains or, possibly, in Colorado. In winter, they went to Florida or perhaps to California. Nowadays they go to Europe, tens and hundreds of thousands of them every year.

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New York Not the Only Port

But, as I have said, New York is not the only port of departure for Europe. Philadelphia is connected with Antwerp by steamers sailing fortnightly, and with Liverpool by weekly steamers. Between Boston and Liverpool, the Leyland, Cunard and White Star lines maintain regular service. The latter company also has a steamer for Mediterranean ports at intervals of three weeks. Montreal and Quebec are ports of considerable importance. The "Dominion Line" steamers sail regularly between Montreal and Liverpool. The Allan Line, the pioneer in the Canadian trade, placed two new turbine steamers of twelve thousand tons register in the St. Lawrence Route last year. This year the Canadian Pacific Railway has entered the transatlantic field with two magnificent vessels, guaranteed to reel off twenty knots an hour. The activities of this latter company are almost world-wide. In addition to operating through trains across the American Continent, it maintains steamship service between Vancouver, British Columbia, and China, as well as from Quebec to Liverpool. But that is not exceptional. The fleet of the Hamburg-American Company, comprising no less than 351 vessels, traverses the waters of the entire globe. The operations of the White Star, Cunard and North German Lloyd companies are only a little less extensive.

The English are no longer undisputed masters of the sea, as they once were. Twenty years ago, almost everybody who went to Europe, landed at Liverpool. To-day, you can go aboard a steamship in New York harbor that will take you to Marseilles, Genoa, Naples, Palermo or Trieste in the Mediterranean; Havre, Boulogne or Cherbourg in France; Bremen or Hamburg in Germany; Glasgow, Dover, Plymouth, Southampton or London in Great Britain; Rotterdam or Antwerp in Holland; Christiania in Sweden and Copenhagen in Denmark, while at certain times of year, steamers leave New York for Egypt, making only two or three calls en route.

What is the cause of this enormous increase in travel to the Old World? And what are the managers of American railroads doing to turn the tide to our own resorts?

These are questions which I shall try to answer.

Why Do Americans Go Abroad?

Why do Americans go to Europe? That is not an easy question to answer. Everybody has a different reason. The chief one, I think, is that the experience is really worth while. And I make this statement in spite of the fact that comparatively few Americans take the pains to equip themselves mentally for a trip as they ought to do. The first thought of many a man who has a spare thousand dollars in his possession and can get away from his business for a couple of months is: Why not go to Europe? If he begins to think about it, he is lost. The steamship companies are pretty good advertisers.

Put a picture, in colors, of the Bay of Naples with Mount Vesuvius looming up in the foreground before the cashier of a bank in the Middle West. Tell him he can get there in fourteen days from where he lives, and the chances are that within a week, he will begin to ask questions about rates and "pensions" and a dozen other things of which, a short time before, he had only a very vague idea. A week later, he has bought a Badaeker and paid $25 deposit on his ticket to Europe.

Artists, writers, teachers and clergymen comprise a very considerable proportion of the people who go to Europe. Such men have long holidays; and it is only natural that they should look to the Old World as a desirable playground.

Many people go abroad to try to secure a social position in London or Paris which is denied them at home. College professors want to see the lands where Virgil lived and Socrates perplexed his fellow citizens by asking questions which none of them could answer. The business man goes for a rest, and the invalid for his health.

The fact that the country, taken as a whole, is exceptionally prosperous is, of course, the principal reason for this greatly increased travel to Europe. But another reason is: The remarkable increase in the number, size and comfort—there has been little increase in speed—of the vessels engaged in carrying passengers to and from Great Britain and the Continent of Europe. A third reason is that Americans have learned that

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Europe is not so very far away, after all; that the voyage there and back is much more pleasant (in spite of a couple of days' seasickness) than a long journey by rail and, finally, that Europeans do some things a good deal better than we do.

All in all, it is a great thing for the steamship companies. And I am not sure it is not equally good for the thousands of Americans who go as for the tens of millions who stay at home. For, if there is one thing more certain than another, it is this: If this country of ours is ever to be as great intellectually and artistically as it is physically and financially, the impetus must come from Europe. This does not mean that we should blindly follow the standards of Italy, Greece, France, Germany and Spain. Not at all. But it does mean that the more nearly we get in touch with the best there is in the fields of art, music, and architecture, the better equipped we shall be to do good work at home.

Floating Hotels

As illustrating the progress in the construction of ocean steamships which has been made in recent years, it is worth noting that at least three (possibly more) of the steamers in the North Atlantic trade are equipped with passenger elevators. Aboard these boats electric lights; telephone connections all over the ship; a ladies' hair-dresser; wireless telegraph equipment; fresh flowers always on sale; a gymnasium; an information bureau; nurses who act under the directions of the ship's physician; an a-la-carte restaurant and, in addition to the orchestra which plays regularly in the main dining-room, is a gypsy band for the special entertainment of those who dine in the restaurant.

Barber-shops, bathrooms, libraries, ladies' parlors, writing and smoking-rooms—these are conveniences which every passenger steamship provides as a matter of course.

When you consider further, that the passenger steamers of this day and generation are three, four, yes, even five times as large as the vessels of twenty years ago, you will realize that crossing the Atlantic is not what it was in 1885 or 1890. At that time, an eight thousand-ton steamer was looked upon as a marvel. To-day, this line or that launches a twenty-five thousand-ton vessel and, beyond a brief description of it in the daily papers, outside of maritime circles the matter is hardly mentioned.

Let us go a little further into this matter of the increased size of transatlantic steamships: Twenty years ago, only a very few vessels were as long as four hundred feet. To-day, there are any number of steamers which are in the neighborhood of six hundred feet long, and several which are almost (and a few which are quite) seven hundred feet. Depth and width have, of course, increased proportionately. So has engine-power. Ten thousand horse-power is—why, that is ordinary. The "express" steamers have three times as much; and at least one is credited with having forty thousand horse-power.

Records Made Years Ago Have Never Been Lowered

And yet—and this is, perhaps, the oddest feature of this whole business of transatlantic travel—there has not been any very remarkable increase in recent years in the speed of the vessels in service between this country and Europe. The two Cunarders now being built will, it is claimed, have a speed of more than thirty knots (about thirty-five miles) an hour. but the records of six and, in some cases, ten years ago, have never been disturbed. Take, for example, the Lucania's run of five days, seven hours and twenty-three minutes from Queenstown to New York, made in October, 1894; it still stands. The New York-Plymouth run of five days, seven hours and thirty-eight minutes, made in September, 1900, by the Deutschland, has never been surpassed. As far back as 1856, the Persia made the run from New York to Queenstown in nine days, one hour and forty-five minutes, while the Etruria, in 1885, took six days, five hours and thirty-one minutes.

This condition of affairs is undoubtedly due to a realization, on the part of the owners and managers of the transatlantic lines, that, after all, a sixteen-knot boat is a bigger money-maker than a twenty-three-knot one. The Amerika and the Kaiserin Auguste Victoria, of the Hamburg-American Line, both of which are new, though much larger than the Deutschland, which was built some years

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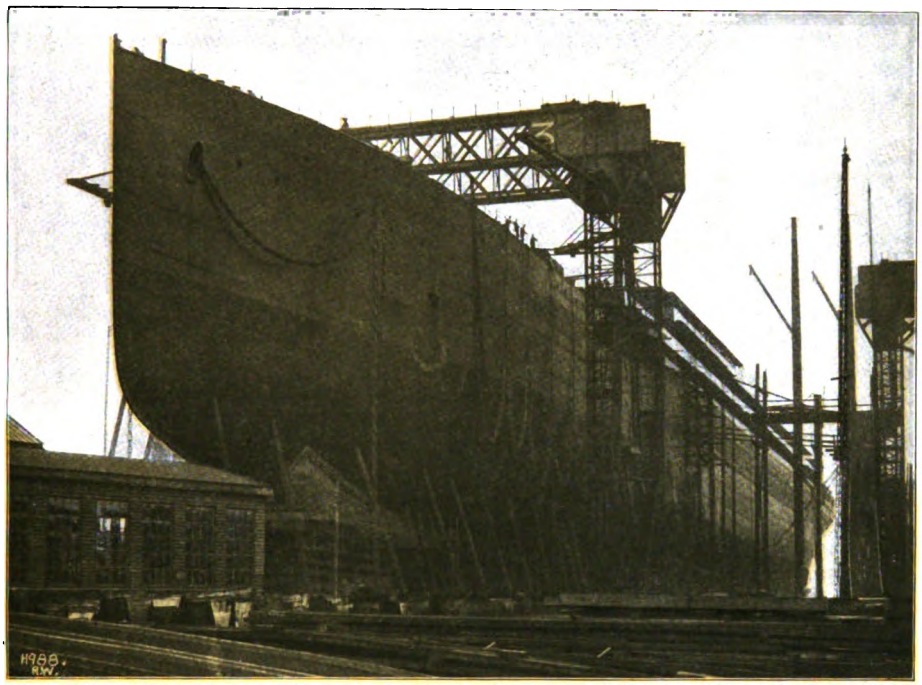
ago, are not nearly so fast. A similar state of affairs exists in the case of the North-German Lloyd, White Star and other lines; their new boats, while much larger than the old ones, are little, if any, faster. The new monster turbine boats of the Cunard line, the Mauritania and the Lusitania, are expected to develop thirty-one statute miles an hour, thus making it possible to cover the distance from New York to Queenstown in three days and eighteen hours. But it is not likely that they will be run on this extraordinary schedule.



THE ADRIATIC JUST BEFORE LAUNCHING

This fine vessel of the White Star Line was launched last September. It will be completed about May 1, 1907

Some Peculiarities of Steamship Fares

Rates of passage are considerably higher than they were fifteen or twenty years ago. They used to range from $60 to $100 a berth. If you wanted unusually good accommodations, you could engage the captain's cabin, which cost $50 extra. To-day, the "minimum" rate on several steamers is $125 and suites-de-luxe, composed of parlor, bedroom, bath and toilet rooms, are sold for months in advance at prices varying from $500 to $2,000.

The earning capacity of the modern steamship is far in excess of the vessel of twenty years ago. The latter had accommodations for only a limited number of passengers and rates were comparatively low. If every stateroom is occupied—and, during the summer months, it almost always is, the owners of a vessel like the Kaiserin Auguste Victoria will take in more than $100,000 a trip for the first cabin space alone.

There are some things about ocean fares which, at first glance, impress one as unjust. Before me, as I write, is a circular showing the proposed sailings and rates of passage of one of the lines plying between New York and Great Britain. I find that a berth for which $75 is asked in the "winter" season (Nov. 1 to March 31) sells for $90 in the "intermediate" season (April 1 to April 30) and for $150 in the summer season (May 1 to July 17). That does not seem quite right. The time on board, the berth, the service and the food are the same the year round.

There is an even greater discrepancy on other vessels. But it is useless to argue

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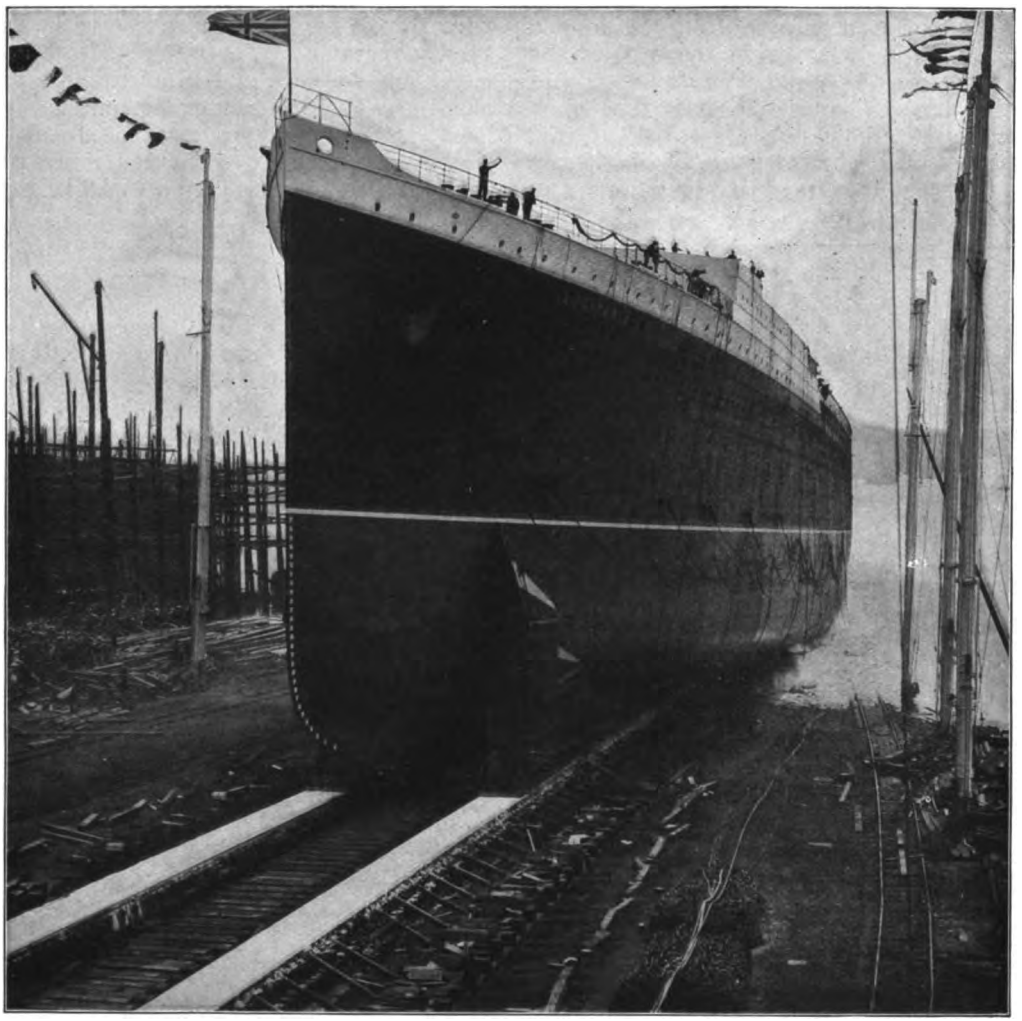

LAUNCHING THE LARGEST SHIP IN THE WORLD

The Cunarder Lusitania was launched at Clydebank, England, in June, 1906. With its sister ship, the Mauritania, it is the largest vessel in the world, 790 feet long and of 32,500 tons gross tonnage. Four turbine engines drive four three-blade propellers with a total of 70,000 horse-power. Its speed is 25 knots an hour

with a steamship man. If you do not care to pay his price, some one else will. So—move along, please. The man who stands alongside you at the counter has a pocketbook as fat as he is. He will buy if you do not.

But it is in September and October that the steamship companies make hay, even though the sun may not shine as brightly then as it does in June or July. The homeward rush from Europe is at its height and every man, woman and child who left our shores in spring and early summer is clamoring for berths. Rates are advanced to a point that no one but an American would tolerate. Think of paying six, eight, ten, even twenty cents a mile for water travel. And yet we are told that there is "no money in the steamship business." The rush seasons, both east and west bound, are very short. And the steamship companies, barring those with Mediterranean sailings, have their own troubles, in more ways than one, in winter. That is the time of year when the traveler gets his money's worth. Rates are reduced and the chief steward, who is too busy to look at you in June, is Your Very Obedient Servant in January.

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THE LUSITANIA JUST AFTER LAUNCHING

The masses of chain cable in the foreground are used to check the momentum of the vessel after launching. Each one of the sixteen piles of cable weighs about 100 tons. The Lusitania, fully loaded, will have a draft of 37½ feet, which is three feet more than the depth of the entrance to New York harbor. The United States is therefore dredging the channel

What Are American Railroads Doing?

It is time to get back to our passenger agent whom we left on the pier and ascertain what, if anything, he and his kind are doing to offset the tide of travel to Europe which grows greater every year.

Practically nothing. Some of the western railroads are fathering a movement which has as its motto, "See America First." That is all very well. But it takes a long time to see America. And a lot of it is not worth the money it costs to get there. To cap the climax, San Francisco, which has been the magnet that drew thousands of pleasure-seekers across the continent, has gone out of business—only temporarily, though, let us hope. Even if it had not, it is questionable if travel to California would continue to increase as it has done in recent years.

Nor have American railroads kept pace with the transatlantic steamship lines in so far as improving their service is concerned. It is true that there has been a few hours' reduction in the running time of the limited trains between New York and Chicago, Chicago and California, and, during the winter months, New York and Florida. But hardly any-

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where else are the schedules faster than they were five years ago. Nor have any notable improvements in equipment been made. The sleeping car is just about what it was ten years ago, longer and heavier than it used to be, perhaps, and in rather better taste, but fundamentally it has not been altered one iota. The berths are precisely as they used to be; and the arrangements for heating, lighting and ventilating are about as they were years and years ago.

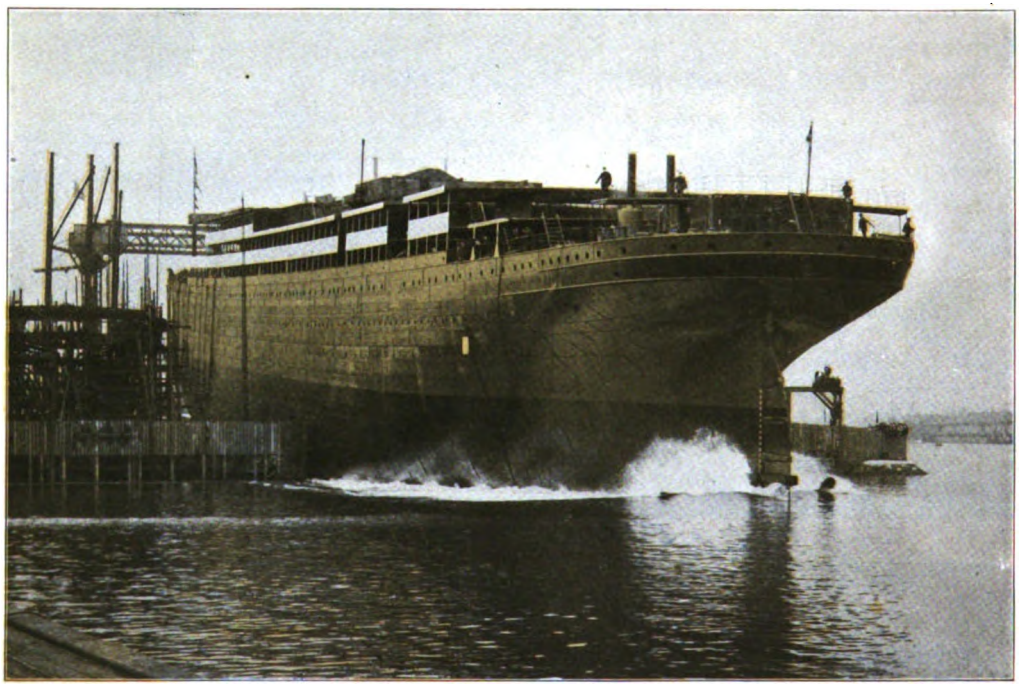
Here is the condition that confronts the American railroad man: It costs *less*, considerably less, to get to Switzerland from New York than it does to California. There is one explanation of the popularity of Europe. *It costs less.* Our railroad managers are not yet fully alive to that fact. It is not a case of the New York Central competing with the Pennsylvania or the Burlington competing with the North-Western for a Colorado or a California ticket. It is a case of the railroads of the United States competing with the transatlantic steamship lines for the patronage of two hundred and fifty thousand people who are going *somewhere.* They will spend a thousand dollars apiece, on an average, and they will be "on the wing" for two, three or four months.

As matters now stand, most of them go to Europe. They go, because it is cheaper; because there is more to see; because their experiences are more enjoyable, and because the provisions for their comfort, amusement and entertainment are better.

These are facts; and they will remain facts until American railroad managers and hotel men see fit to make a great number of very radical changes.

First and foremost, they must give the pleasure-loving people of this country good accommodations at a fair price. They must give them something to do. They must furnish them with guidebooks that are as reliable as "Badaeker." They must clip the claws of the wolves who would take the earnings of a month in payment for a week's board and lodging.

When they do these things, let the transatlantic lines beware!



THE LAUNCHING OF THE ADRIATIC

She is 725 feet in length—over one-eighth of a mile, and longer than the longest city block

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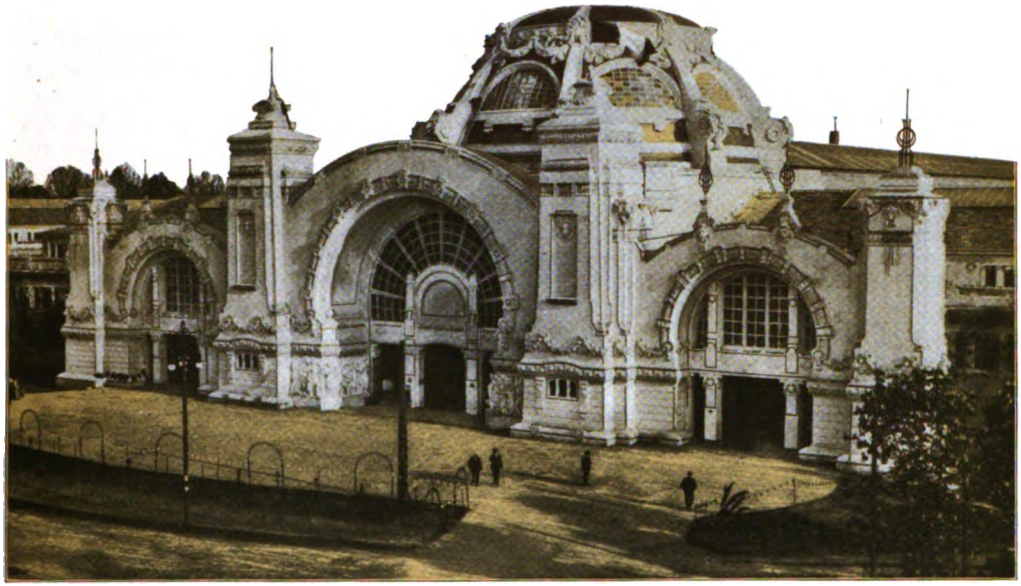

MACHINERY HALL, THE LARGEST AND MOST EFFECTIVE BUILDING IN THE EXPOSITION

THE MILAN EXPOSITION

BY

DEXTER G. WHITTINGHILL

MILAN, the industrial capital of modern Italy, is winning renown by the exposition now being held within her ever-growing borders. Besides the world-famous cathedral, the basilica of St. Ambrose, the Berra Palace of Art, the Ambrosian library, the castle and "The Last Supper" of Leonardo da Vinci, the Lombard city has added another object of interest to the large number which she already possesses.

The original idea of the exposition was to celebrate the opening of the Simplon tunnel. The initiative was strictly private on the part of some progressive Milanese business men, whose plan was to have an exhibit of the various means of transportation by land and by sea, but gradually, by force of circumstances, this was enlarged to include fine arts, decorative art, agriculture, hygiene, machinery, fisheries, farm products and insurance. The financial problem which ten years ago would have made such a plan an impossibility, has been easily solved. The national government gave 500,000 lire; the Savings Bank of Milan 300,000; the Province and the Stock Exchange each 100,000, while the commune generously donated 1,000,000. Public subscriptions amounted to nearly six millions, a gratifying proof that the Milanese lack neither enterprise nor public spirit. King Victor Emanuel showed his interest in the undertaking to the extent of 100,000 lire, which will be used as premiums for the most expert shooting and fencing, and for more practical things, such as prizes for the best material for public roads and the finest model for hotel construction. Other funds have been secured

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as a guarantee, which will raise the assets of the exposition to 12,000,000 lire.

The various buildings, including the foreign pavilions, occupy for the most part "the field of Mars" in the suburb of the city, and cover about three hundred thousand square meters. A bird's-eye view from one of the watch towers is striking and very beautiful, but the general effect can not be compared to that of the Chicago exposition. The Milan exhibit is by no means small, as the combined length of the various galleries is twenty-six kilometers, while that of the railway tracks alone measures nine. Austria, Belgium and France each has a well-adapted building. The first two devote most of their space to a railway show. Germany, Hungary, England, Switzerland, Holland, Mexico, Japan, Servia and the United States take official part. The South American Republics unite in a building which does them credit. Canada has a palace to itself, while China and Turkey each has its own kiosk. Switzerland's pavilion is typical.

The Simplon Gallery, with the two entrances reproducing faithfully the ovoidal section of the Simplon tunnel, stands at the end of the Court of Honor, and is one of the principal gates of the exposition. This representation of the famous feat of civil engineering is not only external, but also internal. For several meters within one may see the massive beams and axes, the gigantic iron frames, the engines of destruction and the various materials used in the construction of the tunnel. Even niches and places of security in case of a flood or falling stone are well reproduced. The various tools and engines of destruction used both in the construction of the St. Gothard and the Simplon are on exhibition, side by side, so that one may see what wonderful progress has been made in overcoming the barriers of nature. The indefatigable locomotive which for years carried within machines of labor and squads of fresh workmen and brought out new trophies of victory is not lacking. A large collection of scientific and technical studies of data, of designs and plans, complete this most unique feature of this exposition.

The Palace of Fine Arts, almost semicircular in shape, is one of the most imposing buildings on the grounds. The exhibit is strictly national and in contrast

THE SIMPLON GALLERY ENTRANCE TO THE EXPOSITION
The building contains a reproduction of part of the Simplon Tunnel, suggested by the ovoidal entrances

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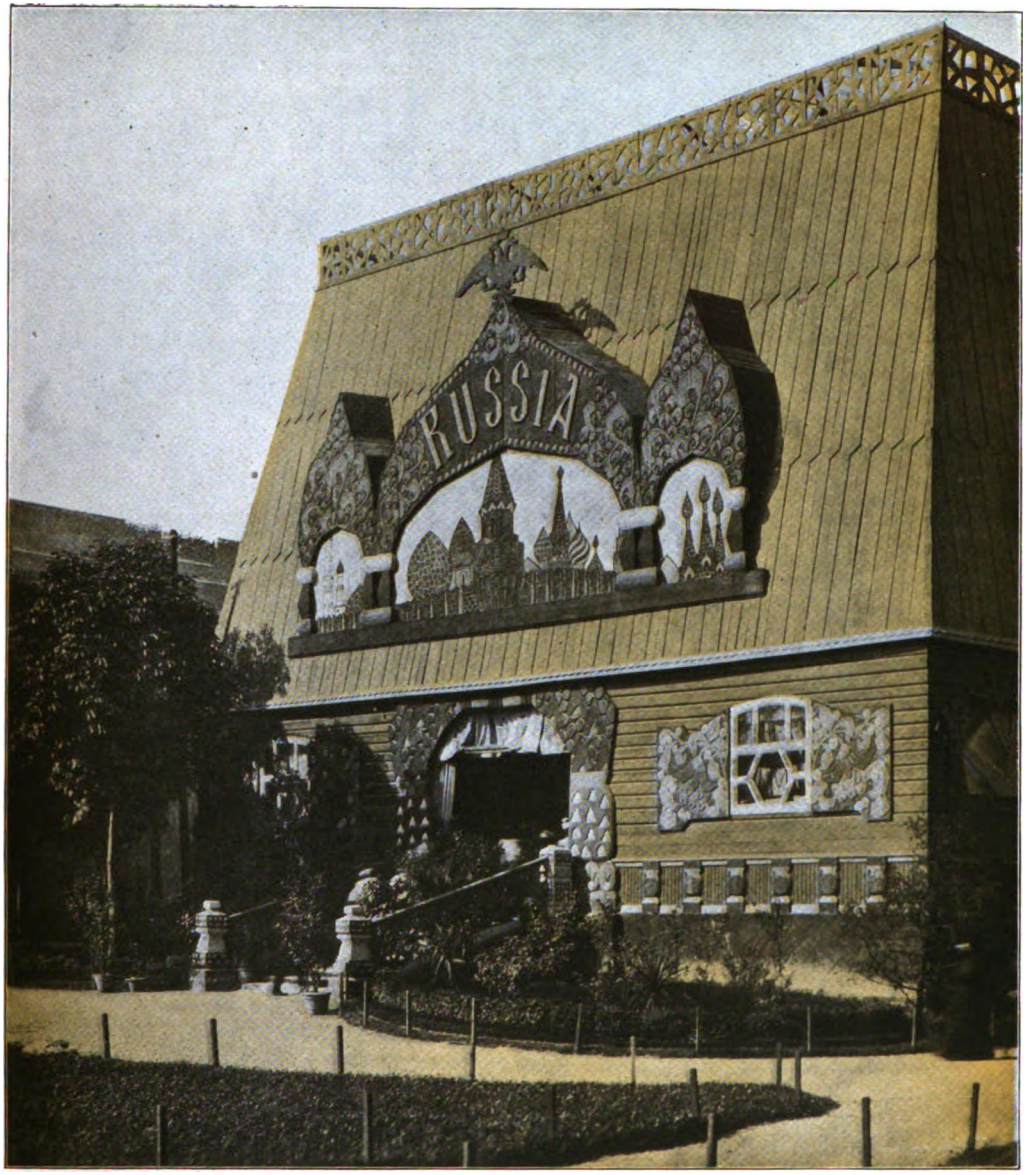

THE ENTRANCE TO THE RUSSIAN PAVILION
An interesting exaggeration of the national style

with the one at Venice, which is held every two years and is international. Here all the regions of Italy are represented by well-known artists, whose works are disposed according to the section from which they come. In proportion to others this display does not attract the attention one would expect, as Italy no longer leads the world in painting. It is needless to add that the paintings are comparatively few in number and for the most part are not striking, as they treat of subjects which do not develop the best talents of a true artist.

In the machinery building, which is spacious and handsome, the visitor may see the machines of many of the Italian industries, such as silk, cotton and wool weaving, leather, wood, iron and glass-works. A new feature of this department is a true production of each industry on the spot, with an office for the sale of the

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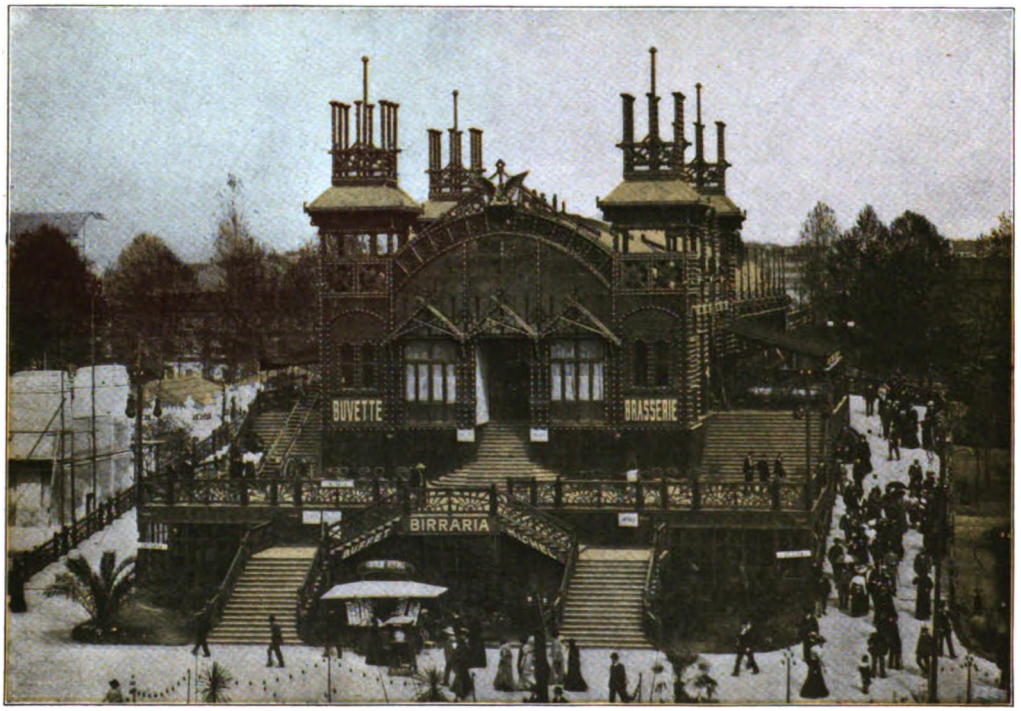

STATION AT THE PIAZZA D'ARMI
A curious style of architecture designed by a Milan wood-working company and meeting with popularity in the neighborhood

ONE OF THE DECORATIVE ART BUILDINGS
The "New Art" has taken a strong hold on the Italians

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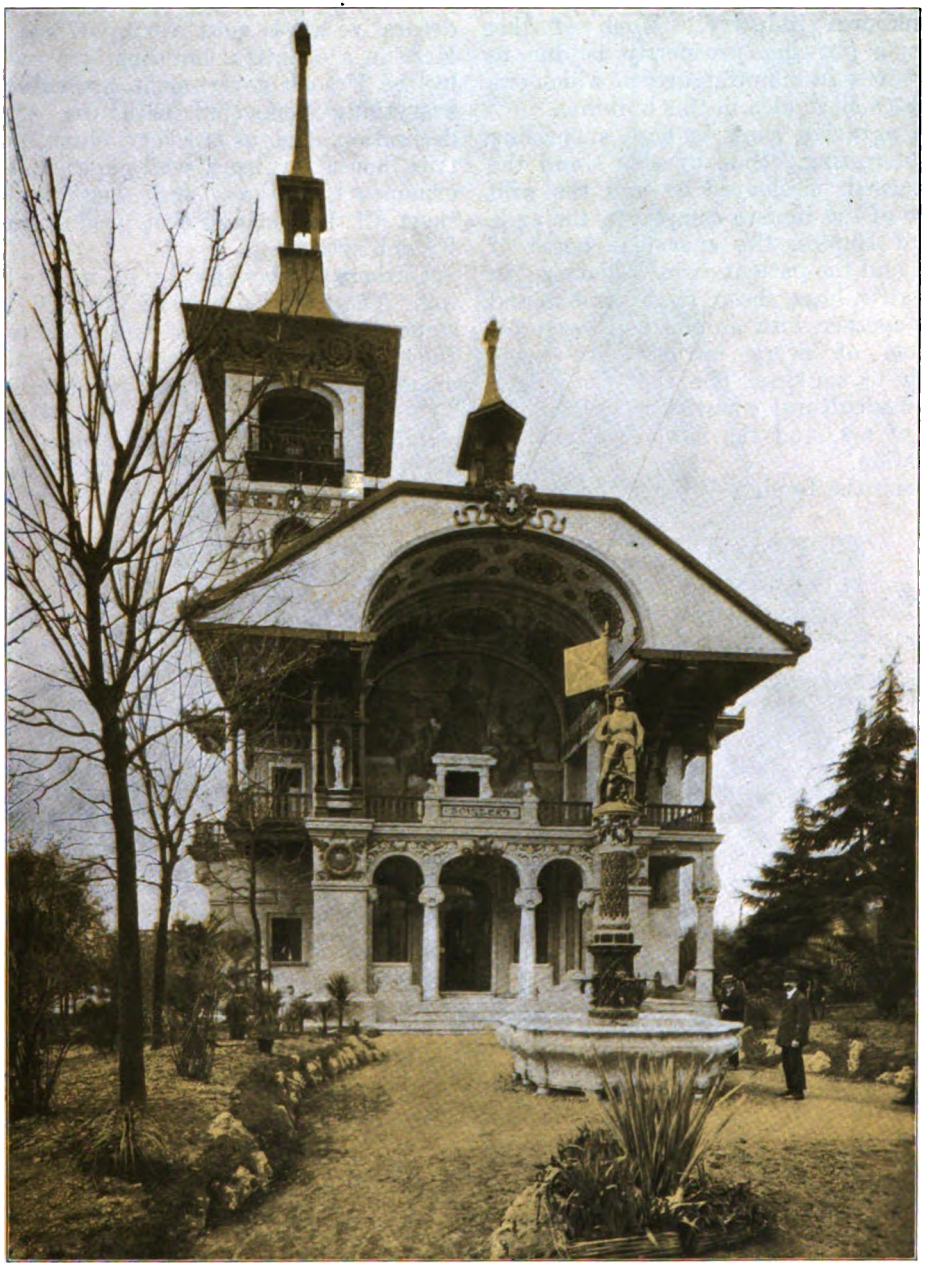

THE SWITZERLAND PAVILION
A typical and attractive foreign building

articles beside each machine. This is no mere deposit of machinery, now idle and again madly running, for the machines are in continuous motion. One of the chief industries — silk — is shown in all the phases of its development, from the opening of the cocoon to the dyeing of the material, as well as the manifold processes of spinning and weaving. So rapidly has Italy progressed in this domestic art that she has become a dangerous rival of China in the world's market. Cotton production almost reaches the hundred million mark annually. A few years ago it was

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an unknown industry. Much of this country's growing prosperity is due to the progress in manufactures of which one may get a clear idea in this building.

The agrarian show is both surprising and interesting. Side by side stand the long-horned, meek-eyed ox and the wild buffalo of the Roman campagna, the agile goat of Naples, the enormous horse of Genoa and the patient ass of Calabria; in fact, cattle, hogs, sheep, fowls, rabbits and dogs, together with animal and vegetable products of every variety, are here; enough to convince one that Italy is a great agricultural country as well as the home of art, and the mother of modern civilization.

Among the foreign displays the French decorative art is most worthy of mention. Here in a beautiful building, constructed by the French government, are exhibited everything connected with the art of decoration, such as crockery, china, tapestries, house furniture, wall paper, metallic ornaments, dresses and costumes — in short all the last and best productions of French artists.

Curious displays are by no means lacking. The railway train of Pius IX., constructed at Paris in 1848 and given to the Pope by Louis Napoleon, is at Milan among the artistic and historic curiosities! "Buffalo Bill" entertains the Milanese public with his daring feats and "Wild West" shows. "The Streets of Cairo," though on a small scale, are reproduced

THE MARINE TRANSPORTATION BUILDING
The lighthouse, 200 feet high, clearly shows the purpose of the building

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BELGIUM PAVILION
A splendid example of the national style

with scrupulous exactness. In them appear mosques, bazars, cafés, houses, minarets, camels, donkeys and native merchants as in their Oriental home. The "black" village is also here with its ugly, disfigured brood of unwashed, uncivilized Africans, whose "song and dance" are given with untiring energy and monotonous regularity. A brief visit to these "images of God carved in ebony" is a good preparation for a cup of delicious Arab coffee, which happily acts both as a stimulant and disinfectant.

The Milan Exposition clearly demonstrates the material prosperity of Italy and especially of the northern part. Although the kingdom is absolutely lacking in coal, manufacturers have wisely made use of the mountain streams, or *carbone bianco* ("white coal," as it is called), as motor-power. Now the provinces of Lombardy, Piedmont, Venice and Udine are thickly dotted with manufacturing establishments whose products are rapidly enriching this fair land. The economic strides of Italy are a surprise to the world, and richly does she deserve better days, after so many weary years of foreign oppression, internal strife and grinding poverty.

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SOLITUDE—THE SNOW

LEON DABO—A PAINTER OF SPACE

BY

JAMES WILLIAM PATTISON

AUTHOR OF "PAINTERS SINCE LEONARDO"

WHICH of us can remember how far away the sun is, or having ascertained from the encyclopedia, what good does the information do us? What sensations come to us when we roll off the tale of the miles with sonorous utterance? We who potter about in this commonplace world amid the petty fractions of existence rarely let ourselves fling the imagination out into space to compass the vastness of universals.

Very few painters can tear themselves away from the incidentals of nature to create in our minds a sensation of space in the great out-of-doors, allowing us nothing else. It demands courage to paint only space, so lovingly do the majority of us detach our attention from one little object to fix it on another, contented by our momentary affection for this beloved tree or that old stone fence where we played as children. Even on a mountain top, overpowered by the immensity of the distance, we all too quickly forget the largeness of the expanse, allowing the eye to search for some lakelet of picnicking associations. Few of us feel space or care

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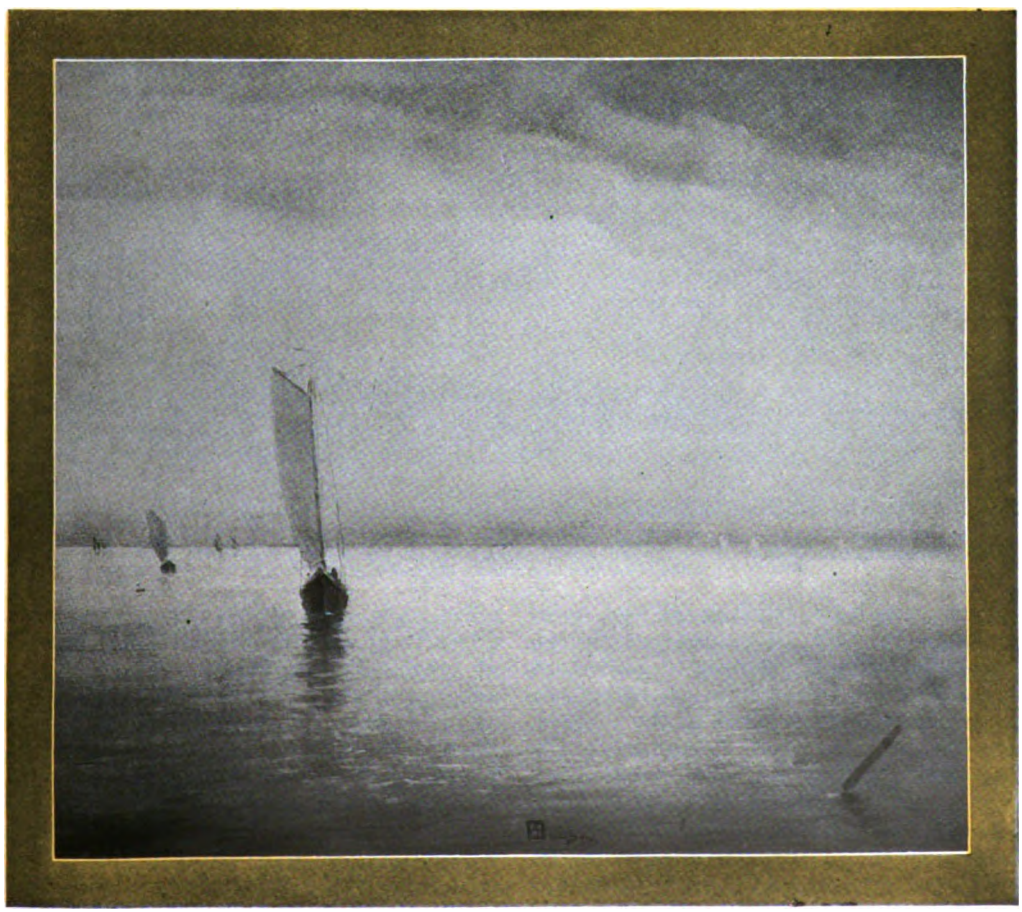
for its wonders. Out on the endless plains of Colorado, where nothing but gray reaches of insignificant sage-brush distract the attention between foreground and horizon, and the very sky is empty, we are overpowered by space. But the prairie-dogs, scuttling to cover, soon bring us back to trifles. We love the little gophers because we hunger for details.

Occasionally an artist makes a reputation by painting the space of the great plains; but most of them trifle with it, granting us a study of details in sage-brush or in long ears, as the jack-rabbit rears himself up furtively. What then must be the courage of a man who dares paint the scenes of our civilization, so slightly hinting at incidentals familiar to us as almost to ignore them. It would be reckless to fix the limitations of landscape painting. Next week some genius may make foolishness of our measurements. But it would seem that there must be some objects made use of, something or other which we know about, to carry a thought home to us. Formless spots of color, however beautiful, can not make a landscape. Most landscapists use too many forms, thus dividing the attention and losing the idea of simple space. A few have attempted to eliminate courageously all but the absolute essentials.

Such a one is Leon Dabo, an eliminator of many interesting things for the sake of producing the sense of wide space, just that and no more. If clouds must appear in his sky, he shapes them so as to produce a feeling of space, giving no attention to incidents which perchance might interfere with spaciousness. If there must be trees, he treats them quite cavalierly, almost insulting their foliage



STATEN ISLAND—RAIN-CLOUDS
The sky is peculiarly deep though there is nothing in it

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in his indifference, making them mere sign-boards on the road to the immense far-away, whither we are directed to follow, whether we will or not. He forces us to consider space. Rocks and land are merely surfaces over which we have to glide into space. Water is deep, glassy or ruffled, varied by echoings of the overhanging sky, and all manner of things, but most of all surface over which we are forced to glide to the limitless extents of space. People, as painted in the picture, are but puppets used to influence the imagination. They are ourselves standing at the starting-place of the journey into space. If their attitudes—and they are never more than attitudes—hint at human sentiments, pleasant doings or out-of-door frolics, they but start us in a good humor for this far-off goal: the infinite.

Leon Dabo is not disposed to select a time of day or an effect of atmosphere which will especially aid him in representing space, as many artists do, quite naturally. If at times the misty morning lends itself to him, or the moonlight, both remarkably mysterious and spacious in effect, it is also true that the artist paints all sorts of daytime, still telling us only of space. It is a question of lines, long and but slightly broken, of the reduction of his forms to their final simplicities, to the elements of values and distance; using just enough of detail to give something for the eye to lay hold of.

THE LAWN PARTY—SEASHORE

This picture was painted from the top of a hill, which accounts for the smallness of the human figures. To give the sense of spaciousness it is all in tones of gray

Let us analyze a picture: the "Staten Island—Rain-clouds," for example. There is nothing in it but the mysterious land at the horizon, considerably below the middle of the canvas (as the fashion often

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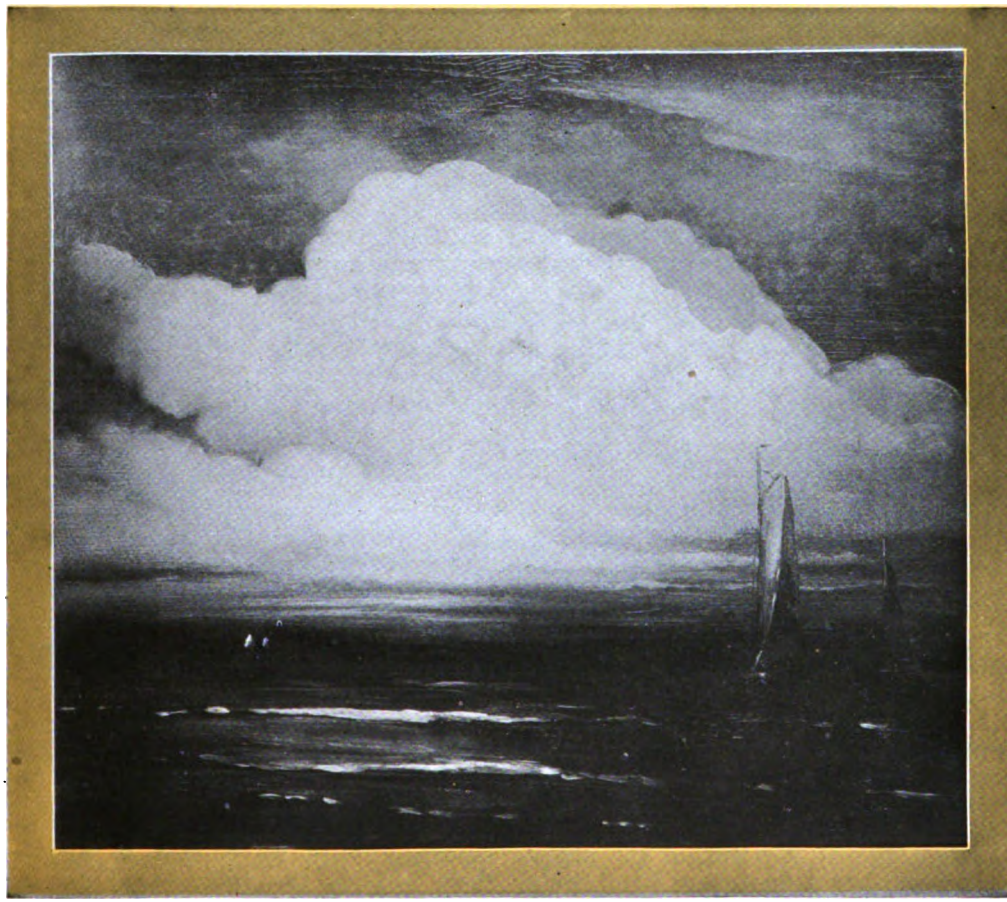
is with all painters), a reach of water, made very luminous by reflections of some luminosity in the rainy sky, a sail-boat with dark hull reflected in the water, its echo beyond of trifles of boats surmounted by a sky without forms except the vaporings of rain-clouds dark at the top of the canvas. Nearly all the sky is no more than depth of penetrable mistiness. It is peculiarly deep though there is nothing in it. To paint that much sky with nothing in it but depth is already a triumph. The wet clouds above have only enough form to suggest their character, floatings of retreating mystery. In the water there are merely hints of ripples, never insisted on but leading away to the eternal. Japanese fashion, he darkens a line of the immediate front of the canvas, to hold all this together, and a vagabond spar buoy gives a balancing spot on the right. I select this picture because it is one of the most commonplace in arrangement.

Other artists frequently compose like this, but few of them have the courage to eliminate the details. They can not resist the opportunity to entertain us with multitudinous trifling matters, all of real interest but non-essentials, because they see them there. Indeed, these trifling truths are beautiful, but our attention bestowed on them is our attention taken away from the immensity of space. It is a fact that no man can feel intensely for two things at the same time, and another fact that thoughts about details destroy thoughts about larger matters.



THE CLOUDS — MOONLIGHT
Silence and largeness of space are the characteristics of this painting

In "The Lawn Party — Seashore" the horizon beyond the wide sea is placed very high and the land at the bottom of the

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AN EVENING FESTIVAL

canvas is placed very low down. It is decidedly narrow; and it is a hilltop. This original composition is peculiar to Dabo. He has been accused of using it too often; making a fad of it. But, of the photographs which I hold in my hand, only three out of ten compositions show its use, and in a recent special Dabo exhibition I saw but two or three of them. He can use it well but does not depend on it. There is nothing in this picture but the darkish horizon, the faint streals of light on the water, the rounded hilltop, the light clothes of the women picknickers and the vapory trees. Out in the wide sea there are the ghosts of boats. The color is tonal and ghostly, nothing positive to distract the attention from the largeness of the sea spread out before us, as we see it from a hilltop. Would the trees be thus vague? I am not especially disposed to discuss this question. They might be. In any case, the artist saw fit to make them thus, and it wonderfully aids the expression of spaciousness. Were we obliged to linger about these trees, especially were we obliged to consider their leafage, the wideness of the air would at once be forgotten. Also remember that there are no colors approaching even in the slightest degree to pure greens, reds or yellows. Is this true to nature? Undoubtedly nature *can be* like this, but I doubt not that Dabo reduced his colors to a play of tones deliberately, because the absence of varied colors again saves us distraction from the main purpose of the art work and forces us to see and feel that purpose.

There can be no doubt that the world seen from a height looks more spacious than it does from the level land. The sky appears immense in Holland where the land is very level, but the earth seems

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insignificant; as it really is there. Therefore it is no wonder that Dabo painted "The Seashore" from the top of a hill, from which we look down on a slope of sandy dune to the sea and thus all the way along the surface to a high horizon, as it must be high when we are on high. If we were in a balloon the horizon could not be placed in the picture at all, being much too far removed from the line of vision. The smallness of the human figures is true to nature as thus seen from above. Had the artist carried the eye all the way out of the picture, with no horizon at all, should we feel the space to better advantage? It is doubtful. We have to reach out to some tangible facts or the imagination ceases to operate. It is this which Dabo does so well; knowing just how much he shall give, just how much to eliminate. There is no dark spot in this picture; all is rendered in a series of pale grays, very choice grays, with no shocks or disturbances to interrupt our thoughts.

Of all huge things what could be grander than "The Clouds—Moonlight?" One immense collection of white cumulus fills most of the sky. A sail floats ever so softly in the shadowy edges of the mass; underneath, the dark sea spreads itself to the far-off but almost invisible horizon. Near at hand, the light streaks the water silently. Silence and largeness of space, these are the glories of this remarkable work. The color is night color. There are no positive colors at night. Artists have long disputed over the color to use in painting night. Dabo seems to have made a simple gray, nearly black and white. But black and white are very "cold" in tone and this is delicately warmed, with what I can not tell. The tone is alive and the atmosphere vibrates in that distance. What more can we ask for? Above all, there is immensity, impressiveness and silence. The boat on the right is too plain in the photograph; the picture shows it a spirit hovering in space. The photograph gives an air of commonplaceness to the effect.

The photograph does better justice to "Solitude — the Snow." This has a low horizon and the sky is as simple as gradations can make it. The cool, silent snow lies lonely, as if it had not a knowledge of human kind, as if life, except the sentinel trees, had never crossed its surface. It is king of the season and forbiddingly refuses all association with the rightful owners of the world. As we look at it we seem wrapped up in immensity.

Dabo's colors are individual. Perhaps he owes much to Whistler's nocturnes. That is, the nocturnes prepared the world to receive these colors willingly. There is no resemblance between this work and Whistler's except that both artists had in a measure the same sort of feeling. Beyond a doubt. Dabo mixes tones of gray on his palette in a specific sequence: gradations of cool, slaty grays and a sequence of slightly warmer grays, much like the first but mildly contrasting with them. Is the effect monotonous? It might be but for the extraordinary depths of atmosphere secured in their use. Certainly the object in reducing nature to a series of these grays is to avoid all disturbance of the sense of space, as varied colors certainly would do. Also, the tones recall those of many of the soberer semi-precious stones; such stones as our artistic jewelers use so successfully and which the refined dresser appreciates. I know of but one artist who has allowed himself to revel in such grays—Whistler.

There are two brothers Dabo—Leon, of whom I write, and Theodore Scott; the latter the younger. Detroit gave them birth, though they are of French extraction. Both have been painters since childhood. Neither has ever been to an art school, nor has either been a picture-gallery hunter. They painted as the spirit moved and as their tastes dictated. Doubtless their first efforts were pretty amateurish. It is a fact that the juries of the National Academy of New York consider this painting mere amateur experimentation at the present time. It is so difficult for the average trained artist to admit that there can be any real virtue in a painting which ignores all the rules of the academicians. So the pictures of these men were turned down by all juries without exception during upward of twenty years. The very simplicity of paint-laying, the innocence of all scholarly technique, of smart handling of the brush, of combinations of colors supposed to be proper and in good form; all this made the academicians suspicious and they failed to understand; perhaps did not desire to understand. If this were to be

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allowed, where did the academicians stand, and would not this ruin art? Oh, conservatism! how many are thy sins, and how dost thou really imagine that thou art doing God's service!

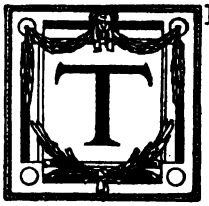
Leon Dabo continued to gain the family bread by commercial work, painting on holidays, while the younger brother was allowed to paint all the time, he being fondly looked upon as the family genius. But things sometimes happen as in the fairy tales. The happening was the arrival of the noted French artist, Aman-Jean, in America, himself an innovator and alive to the wonderful results sometimes obtained by those who will not submit to the dictates of the academicians. As the older brother, Leon, was busy with earning the family bread, he took the younger one under his wing, with the pictures of both, and introduced them to the lovers of rare and unusual art in Paris. The success was immediate. Pictures were bought by a large number of celebrated people, among them Madame Sarah Bernhardt. The Parisian picture dealers paid attention and pushed the good cause along.

It is a question with the Parisian critics as to which of the brothers is the better painter, many claiming that Leon is stronger than Theodore Scott. But let that go; they are much alike while still individual, nor would I like to question the position of either when both are so good. It is needless to say that Leon is no longer earning the family bread by means of a commercial industry a little too remote from the real expression of his peculiar and remarkable genius. Leon Dabo was born in 1868. He stands on sturdy legs and carries a sturdy head. He looks like an American, his brother has French features. Both these men will go far in their art and will be much heard from. The demand for their paintings, both in Europe and America, is phenomenal at the present moment. All things come to those who wait—if they have genius.

PROMOTIONS IN THE CABINET

BY

WILLARD FRENCH



THE signal innovation of the season will be the advent of Oscar Solomon Straus in the cabinet circle. Not that it is a questionable incoming. Far from it. The selection is one of the best. Mr. Straus has a record exhibiting rare qualities for the Department of Commerce and Labor. But he has other history, as well, in which are evident great acumen, intelligence and command, signally fitting him to be a possible Disraeli in the Department of State.

It is well known to those who know well, that Secretary Root has two eyes out, one for a chance to get into the Senate, the other for a chance to get into something else, and it is whispered that the President has followed his old fancy for catching a man he wants when he can, landing him in the cabinet in the first vacancy that occurs and shifting him afterward.

Incidentally this is a pleasant possibility to many, indicative that the President has abandoned his old inclination to make his friend Francis B. Loomis Secretary of State.

But to return to Oscar Straus. The innovation is that he will be the first Jew to hold an executive portfolio. His elder brother, Isidor Straus, was offered the Postmaster-Generalship under Cleveland, but declined. He was in Congress in 1893. There have been twenty-six other Jews in Congress, five of them in the Senate—among them Judah Benjamin, who became Secretary of State for the confederacy, and Isidor Rayner, at present representing Maryland in the upper

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house. Gideon Wells, Lincoln's Secretary of the Navy, claimed Hebrew blood, but Oscar Straus is the first full Jew to hold a United States portfolio.

Mr. Straus was born in Otterberg, Rhenish-Bavaria, in 1850, and four years later, with his two brothers, Nathan and Isidor, two and five years older, was brought to America. The parents settled in Georgia, but eleven years later moved to New York, where the lad graduated from Columbia College, then from the Columbia Law School.

The three brothers were all Democrats, and in the Cleveland election took such effective part that Henry Ward Beecher urged them upon Grover Cleveland for official service. Isidor, as has just been said, was offered the Postoffice Department but declined, Oscar was sent as Minister to Turkey, where he made such a favorable impression that President Harrison endeavored to retain him. Four years later Cleveland again offered him the position, but he declined. After the outbreak of the war with Spain President McKinley, for the fourth time, called upon Mr. Straus to take up the mission to Turkey and for the second time he accepted.

After retiring in 1900, Mr. Straus was made president of the National Conference of Capital and Labor, where his remarkable success will be well remembered. In this work he was brought much in contact with Grover Cleveland and Secretary Bonaparte. He is still a member of the permanent board to settle labor disputes. He is also president of the New York Board of Trade and Transportation, and in 1902 was appointed by President Roosevelt to succeed Benjamin Harrison as member of the permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague.

This is but a hint at the history of the new cabinet officer. He is a scholar as well as publicist and reformer, a shrewd man with marvelous foresight and distinctly a man. He is not large nor so solidly built as his brothers. He is growing bald and his full beard is particularly sparse, doing little to hide the lines of his face. It is well, for they are strong lines, characteristic Jewish lines, with high forehead, full eyes, a decidedly dominant nose and firm mouth.

Mr. Straus is not so attractive to look at as he is in conversation, when his courtesy and magnetism fasten one's respect and admiration, instantly. It is a pity that he comes so late into the cabinet—in case the third-term rejection holds—for, otherwise, in the event that New York State roused to a desire to be really represented in the Senate and honored herself by appointing Mr. Root, in Mr. Straus we should have an occupant of the State Department who, if any man could, would come close to the ability of Mr. Hay.

* * *

It might as well be a face entirely new, when Charles J. Bonaparte steps from the Navy Department into the Attorney-General's shoes; for while every one knows he is a quantity—a very decided quantity—it is a wholly unknown quantity when it comes to what he will do with the large exhibit of trust and merger and railroad grab and graft propositions now on exhibition in Uncle Sam's law office.

We all know what Moody will do on the supreme bench when the questions are brought to him, for he has been doing it boldly and vigorously in the Attorney-General's office; but Bonaparte—well, we shall know when we see, and not very long before. When the President appointed Bonaparte Secretary of the Navy the newspapers put a lot of words in sentences indicative that a relative of emperors was incongruous in the seats of the mighty in a free and independent republic. But the fact that Charles J.'s grandfather, Jerome Bonaparte, was a brother of Napoleon did but guarantee the truly Napoleonic head which is set by a short neck over a heart as truly democratic and as thoroughly Yankee as a heart could be. The child of kings has made a fine Secretary of the Navy. He has had ways of his own and a will of his own to execute them. Over and again he has innovated without asking leave of the solemn board of veteran advisers and bureau heads and brought them down upon him frothing and foaming; but he has met them so suavely—Charles J. Bonaparte can be the suavest man in all creation—smiling so sweetly while he talked; more of that smile anon—that they have gone away quite pacified and never realized till after it was done that he had calmly gone ahead and accomplished precisely what he proposed.

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To return to that smile: It is so like the poor. No one ever saw Bonaparte who could think of much else. True, the first things one sees on meeting him is the bullet round-head—the Napoleon head—with its bold forehead just bald enough to make it yet bolder. Then one notes the nose, a dominating nose, and the full eyes between heavy eyebrows and a short, thick moustache. Then the smile! It starts with the eyes, drops to one corner of the mouth, slips over to the other; then becomes audible in a queer kind of chuckle in the throat, which shakes an increasingly prominent double chin. The upper chin is very timid and retiring, but there's a dimple in it which works in wonderfully with that smile. But don't flatter yourself and pat yourself on the back and think the Secretary of the Navy is "dead easy." That smile is only a cloak to cover up—you will never know what it covers up till you come away and discover where you are. He will cut your throat with a feather while he chuckles and smiles. If you are not satisfied with being thus graciously beheaded and answer back, you'll find an adept at sarcasm and irony using a penknife. If you still rebel, the next you know a backwoodsman will be at you with a brute of an ax. But he will be smiling and chuckling through it all. He is an admirably informed lawyer, though he has never had much to do with courts, being busy with his own affairs.

For a long time he did not know himself whether he was a Democrat or a Republican, and first one party, then the other, in Maryland, sent up a howl for his slashing. But he believes in civil service to the backbone, and is a deadly enemy of grafting and the spoils system—or used to be. It must be the President knows what he will do in the big law office. By and by the trusts and combines will know. Then we shall all know.

He is an aristocrat to the last detail, and with his inherent hatred of the vulgar and the greedy rich his profound ability ought to make him a terror to every wrong-doing trust magnate in the country.

* * *

Another new face made out of an old one will be Cortelyou's as Secretary of the Treasury. It is much easier to praise or criticize the retiring Shaw than it is to see in Cortelyou what he will be.

For twenty years we have all known Cortelyou climbing the ladder, known him in the main as the working hand of presidents, obliterating himself to do the will of his master, whether Democrat or Republican. His years on years as a machine mouthpiece for Cleveland, McKinley and Roosevelt must have more or less established a second nature with him from which it may prove difficult for him to digress.

Cortelyou has always been a conscientious worker, and since he came into the cabinet not another member has been at it so incessantly. His raven hair, rushing back from his forehead, has grown gray in the Postoffice Department. He does not stand as straight or walk as briskly as in the olden time. He is just as pleasant, just as cordial and courteous a man to meet—no one ever was more so—but his smile is more set than it used to be and his opinions are less emphatic. Increasing responsibility and power affect men differently. He has done more for the good of the country in the Postoffice Department than any one of his predecessors since—who remembers when? but the treasury is a different matter.

* * *

George Von L. Meyer who, from his brilliant social triumphs as Ambassador to Italy, and his success of golden silence as Ambassador to Russia, steps into the Postoffice Department, creates something of consternation by the act.

Mr. Meyer is immensely wealthy. He has hobnobbed with the King and Queen of Italy and other royal families. He is an unusually handsome man, a striking figure, has eyes that command and a fine dark moustache. Whatever he wants of the Postoffice Department is more than any one can make out, or what that department really wants of Von L. Meyer.

Washington at best has a vigorous society of wealth which in no way depends upon a government position—in fact, holds itself a little aloof from officials. A wealthy retired diplomat would "take" far better than a Postmaster-General. When President Grant wanted to promote Postmaster-General Jewell he sent him to Russia as minister. On the other hand, the Postoffice, of all places, wants a practical business man. It has no use for diplomats.

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Metcalf going out of Commerce and Labor, to make room for Oscar Straus, would have found his training there as good a drill for postoffice work as Cortelyou, who took the same step before him; while the Navy Department, where Metcalf goes, which does not need Metcalf's distinct abilities, would have profited by such a man as Meyer, and society would have felt better about it and so doubtless would Von L. Meyer's distinguished wife and his two attractive daughters.

* * *

Mr. Garfield has had good training for the Interior Department, which is for him a deserved promotion. He has not the record of twelve years in China, which the retiring Secretary Hitchcock claims did him no end of good; but Garfield can more than play tennis, which endears him to the President.

Some one speaking of the change at the capitol the other day, ventured into the lowest form of wit far enough to remark: "Garfield is all right on the tennis field, but he'll not be able to raise a greater racket in the Interior Department than Hitchcock has with his investigations."

"I tell ye, Doc, business ain't what it used to be!"
Donahey in Cleveland *Plain Dealer*

REFORM FOOTBALL

A SYMPOSIUM

FIELDING H. YOST

The University of Michigan

The football season just closed has been watched with much interest. The new game was on trial and it has met the approval of many who were opposed to the old game. The present rules have opened up the game so that spectators can see what is being done by the individuals, and all can better appreciate the game from every standpoint.

There can be no question that the present game offers opportunities to more students to play the game. The requirements for a good player can be filled by a larger per cent of the student body. Speed and alertness are more in demand in the new game.

The danger of serious or fatal injury is far less now than formerly—in fact almost eliminated to those who are in good physical condition. No others should be permitted to participate.

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A few changes might be made to advantage. Under the present rules, according to which ten yards must be gained in three downs, a team does not have a chance to use the rules to advantage inside its own forty-yard line. It can not risk the forward pass or the on-side kick, because failure in either case forfeits the ball and puts the opposing team in striking distance of goal. There is no alternative but to kick. The spectators like to see scoring, and something should be done to aid the offense, yet to keep the game open. If four downs were allowed to gain ten yards the game would be far more satisfactory to the player and just as interesting to the spectator.

Certainly the rules should be written so that they can easily be understood. They were written in their present form years ago and have been amended in so many different ways that they certainly are a mess now. Why should not the rules committee meet very soon and adopt the rules and give all a chance to know what we are to have next season? It is absurd to wait until the last minute. If the committee met soon and adopted the 1907 rules it would be far more satisfactory to all.

Fielding H Yost

WALTER CAMP

Yale University

When one carefully studies the results of the new rules it becomes a matter of considerable surprise that all the innovations should have proven so successful both from the standpoint of the spectator and that of the player. Most astonishing of all, however, is the fact that the balance of the varieties of play has been so well preserved. It would have been not at all unexpected had the new rules in their first season developed some one side of the game to an inordinate degree.

For instance, there were many who argued when the writer first broached the ten-yard rule—that is, doubling the distance to be made in three attempts—that any such chance would at once resolve the game into a mere exchange of kicks until one or the other side muffed the ball. Yet Yale in her Princeton game and also in her Harvard game of this year under and in spite of the ten-yard rule carried the ball with the running game nearly half the length of the field, and that too against teams of well-known excellence in defensive work.

It might have been supposed that the privilege of passing the ball forward would develop indiscriminate and wild throwing of the ball down the field, but so carefully planned were the restrictions placed upon the forward pass that it was used only with specific intent, and in the hands of those who had not thoroughly mastered its possibilities proved a boomerang. Some argued that the on-side kick would result, on account of the scramble for possession of the ball, in a harvest of injuries. On the contrary almost no injury has come from this, there is no scramble, and the total of casualties—especially serious ones—has been materially reduced. That the ten-yard rule was the mainstay of opening the game has now been generally admitted, for without the ten-yard rule coaches and players know that they would never essay the forward pass, but would revert at once to the less risky methods of mass and close formation plays.

There will come a demand from some individuals undoubtedly for alterations, for more downs in which to gain the distance or for a lessening of the ten yards to be gained, or for a removal of the restrictions governing the forward pass. But the public, the press, the graduates and the undergraduates have seen that the game is well-balanced, intensely interesting, less dangerous and exhausting. They have determined that the ten-yard rule has opened the game, and the forward pass, as it now stands, with the on-side kick has automatically weakened the defense. They have seen the game under these exact conditions, and they have found it good. It will be a rash man who attempts to convince them otherwise.

Walter Camp

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JOSEPH E. RAYCROFT

The University of Chicago

The football season which has just closed was characterized by several marked features. In the first place it has been a very successful season from all points of view, in spite of the fact that there was much uncertainty until late in the year, both as to the schedules for the more important teams and as to the playing rules. In accordance with the resolution adopted by the "Big Nine" Conference, the number of games was limited to five for each conference team, and the further specification was made that the schedules should be arranged so as to minimize the championship feature of the season. As a result Wisconsin played neither Chicago, Michigan nor Minnesota, and Michigan played only one game with another conference team. Wisconsin was the only conference team that went through the season without a defeat. This is interesting in view of the fact that the Wisconsin authorities had definitely decided to discontinue intercollegiate football for at least two years. The reorganization of their department of physical training with Doctor Hutchins at the head, made it possible for them to play a full schedule. Northwestern suspended intercollegiate football and has tried inter-class and inter-department games with considerable success. Taking all things into consideration, Minnesota earned the right to be ranked first among the conference teams.

Of much greater importance than considerations of championships is the spirit in which the various teams met each other off the gridiron, and the spirit which characterized the playing of the games themselves. That the idea of "sport for sport's sake" is growing was clearly shown in this good spirit as well as by the so-called purity banquets which were inaugurated at the University of Chicago in honor of the visiting teams. These meetings at the dinner table on the night before the games were an important factor in changing the attitude of the men toward each other on the field and in enhancing the pleasure which the players themselves derived from the game. Another evidence that sport for sport's sake has gained a strong position among the lovers of football was shown in the indifference of the public to the game when played on a professional basis. The game on Thanksgiving Day between the Massillon, Ohio, professional team and the All-Western college team was attended by a relatively small number of people and aroused little interest.

The game itself underwent a striking development under the new rules, as the season progressed and the possibilities of the forward pass and the on-side kick in their various combinations were realized. Early in the season most of the teams played the old rushing game and, being unable to gain ten yards in three downs, were forced to kick a great deal. Later on these teams were led to vary their attack in the ways made possible by the new rules; but even though this change was marked in most cases, still the real possibilities of the game under the new rules did not begin to be realized in any large sense. The examples which some teams furnished in the later games of a versatile, puzzling attack, will undoubtedly be strong factors in the development of the game for next year. If the rules remain unchanged it is fair to suppose that there will be even greater development in the game during the coming season than there was during the one just passed. The prediction of the rule-makers that the changes would eliminate mass plays has been verified, and as a result, the game has been very much more enjoyable for the spectator and has been much more fun for the player. The importance of the heavy, slow man has been minimized, and there has been a marked decrease in serious injuries.

One of the important features of the season in the West has been the absence of bickerings on the part of managers about officials, owing to the fact that the officials for all the important games were appointed by a committee elected by the conference for that purpose. This committee has been reëlected to serve next year.

The work of the officials was, on the whole, more even and of much better quality than during any previous season, in spite of the many changes in the rules. This improvement was due in no small measure to the educational value of the conference on rules, held in Chicago in

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October. This conference was attended by nearly all the prominent officials and coaches in the Middle West, and was addressed by Walter Camp.

The two-umpire system grew in favor as the season progressed, and it was voted by the conference to continue it next season. The adoption by non-conference institutions of conference standards and rules of eligibility during the past season has been more general even than in previous years.

The work of the "Reform Conference," which was for a time much misunderstood, has brought about a better understanding between the educational and athletic interests in the conference colleges, has stimulated the more general exhibition of that real sportsmanship that has, after all, characterized the meetings of most of the teams for years, and has made possible a much better condition in all intercollegiate relations.

DAN McGUGIN

Vanderbilt University

New football has been tried and not found wanting. A season's test has brought it into favor with player and spectator. Though the variety of attack has been greatly increased, unchanged are the qualities demanded of those who play the game. Men in games must more than ever think rapidly and act with decision and courage.

Many of the best plays made possible under the new rules did not appear until near the close of the season. In the early games the big teams stuck to the old formations, but practiced and developed, in secret, plays upon which hopes were hung for the important contests. New football was not used in all of the important contests, but often, though not used, it played a part in the strategy of the situation. Minnesota planned to defend her goal against the Indians by being prepared to foil tricks, double and forward passes and on-side kicks. She was dazed when the Indians used old football instead and carried on a terrific and successful attack through her line. However, many of the victories of the season can be traced directly to use of new rules. Yale defeated Harvard, a team of more power and admittedly superior at last year's football, through her alert use of the forward pass.

More men can play the game under the new rules. Speed is of more value. The heavy, slow lineman is kissed good-by. Speed in getting down for the on-side kick, speed to enable a back or an end to dart forward or to the side to receive a forward pass, speed everywhere is in demand, and weight together with speed is not as essential as of yore.

The emphasis by the rules committee upon the necessity of rebuking fouls caused officials this year to be more decisive and alert; yet there was little complaint, little dissatisfaction expressed, though more yards were given as penalties than ever before.

Alertness and keen perception are more in demand upon the defense.

The more open game affords less chance of serious injury, gives officials better opportunity to detect fouls. The neutral zone also aids officials and prevents vexatious and irritating acts done for the purpose of provoking anger.

The forward pass, though uncertain this year, affords great possibilities. Few football men turned away from the final game, whose brains were not already at work for its improvement next year.

The game was played this year in splendid spirit, while the atmosphere surrounding it was more wholesome.

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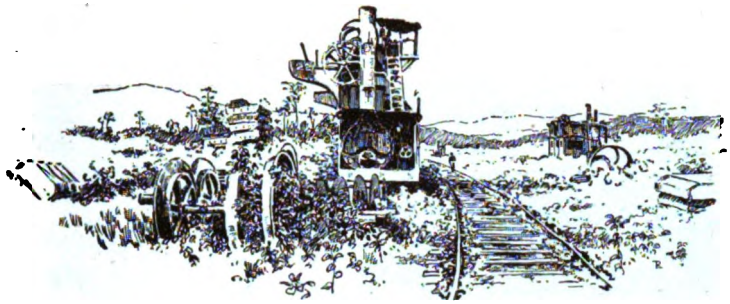

THE PRESIDENT AT PANAMA

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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S FIRST SPEECH
President Amador, of Panama, is on the right

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WELCOMING PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AT THE PALACE IN PANAMA

ON GATUN HILL

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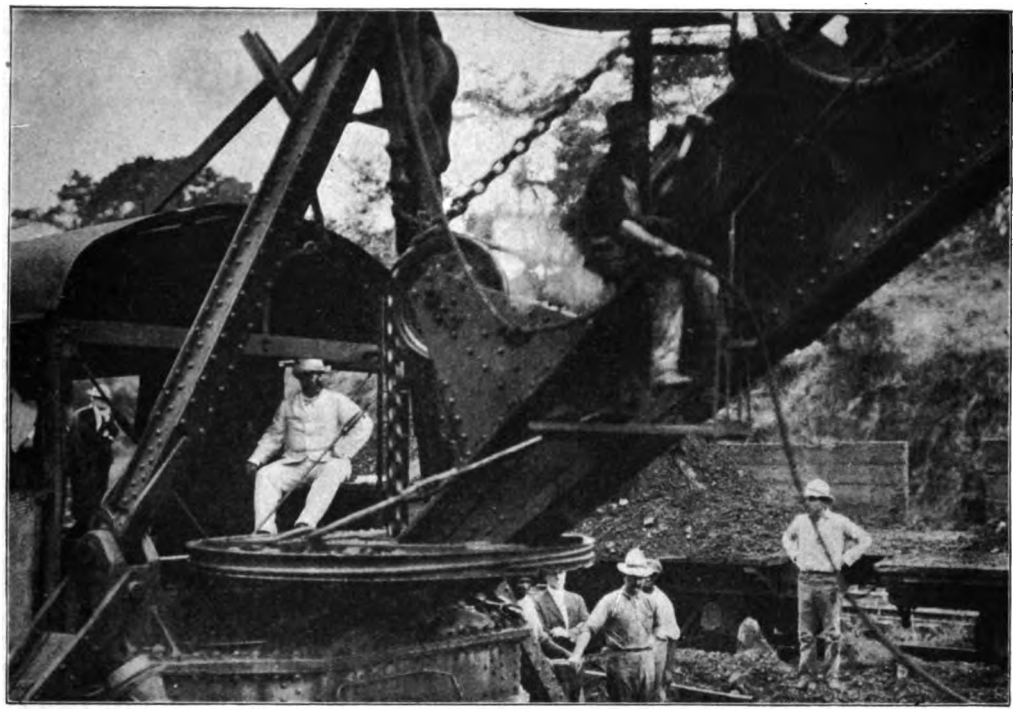
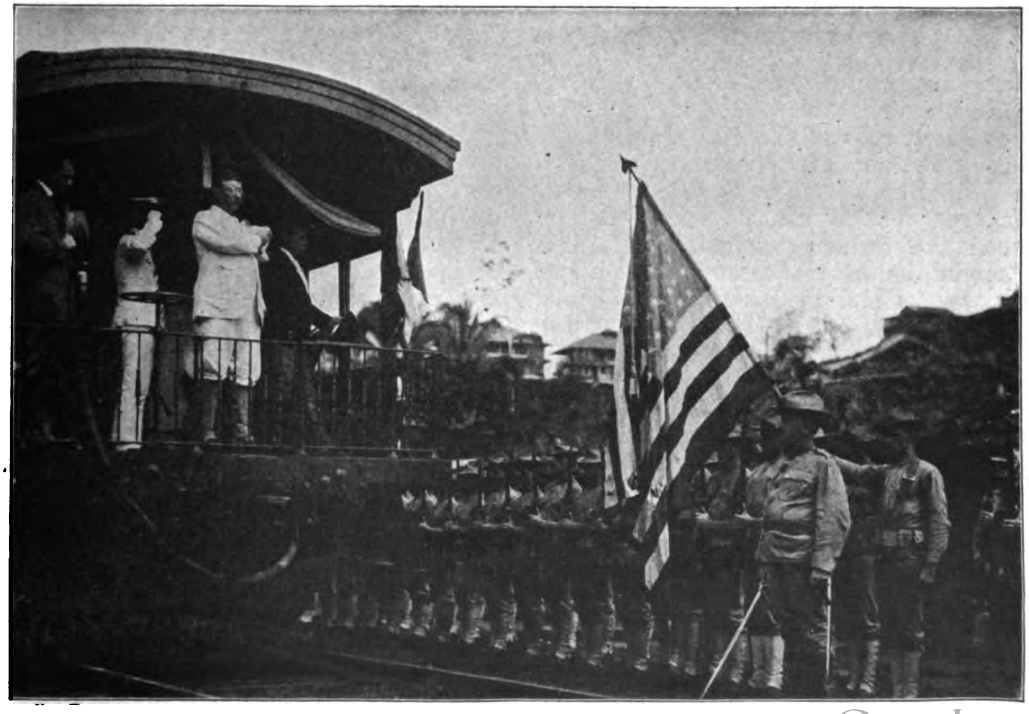


THE PRESIDENT RUNS A STEAM SHOVEL



ADDRESSING AMERICAN SOLDIERS AT CAMP ELLIOTT

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

The Machine Gun in Future Warfare

By Stephen Cammett

THE War Department has been presented with a system, the application of which will make possible a controlled, concentrated, and dirigible fire for our infantry, and simplify to the war-maker the hitherto insurmountable difficulties of ammunition supply.

Before a gathering composed of the most capable officers of our army, experts, and representatives from Great Britain and Germany, Captain John H. Parker, of the Twenty-eighth Infantry, U. S. A., conducted a demonstration in which were met and solved the most difficult problems known to infantry tactics, and as a result, Captain Parker's apparatus and system are to become an integral and important part of every battalion and every squadron in our service.

The supplying of ammunition to the firing-line has become a vital problem, for empty belts mean defeat. In practice it concerns itself with the replenishing of the partially exhausted supply of a firing-line that has become so deeply engaged that it can no longer depend upon the ordinary ammunition trains. Ammunition is transported to the field by wagons and by pack trains. Under very favorable circumstances these may approach the line near enough to supply it directly, but it has been found that this can not always be depended upon, as the trains present large targets to the enemy.

The military man also knows that to deliver the regular, concentrated fire so effective in the warfare of two-score years ago, has, in the dispersed order of the modern battlefield, become a physical impossibility. In the firing-lines of Gettysburg and Bull Run, a thousand men stood shoulder to shoulder, delivering regular volleys at oral command. The point of aim and rate of fire could be changed at will. With hammer-like blows, the commander could so shake and demoralize his adversaries, that the sudden advance of his solid lines might sweep away those of the enemy. In the dispersed order of fighting as practiced to-day the regiment is scattered over some two hundred and fifty thousand square yards, and the largest unit of which the fire can be surely concentrated is a platoon; certainly it is not larger than a company. The members of even this small body may not all be able to fire at the same objective, and volleys can seldom be delivered save in a ragged manner, which impairs their effectiveness. These difficulties are very real in the action of the field.

But here, where there is no solution along old lines, a man arises to show the board of ordnance and fortification that it is possible to obtain by mechanical means, exactly the intense, concentrated fire needed; to show as well, a system which will mean full belts at the firing-line.

Captain John H. Parker is a southern man, at present commissary at Fort Snelling, Minnesota, and with a long and distinguished service in the army of the United States. His researches and experiments in connection with the machine gun cover a period of fifteen years, and in addition, he learned the one great lesson of the Spanish War, that the infantry rifle fire of the future must be largely done by the machine gun.

No well-informed military man now doubts the efficiency of the automatic gun. The Gatling and Colt types have been fully tested in our service, both on target range and in battle, while the Maxim gun has been most successful in the hands of the British. The use made of the machine gun by the Russians at the battle of Liao Yang, August, 1905, settled forever all doubts as to its proposed employment, and made it imperative to

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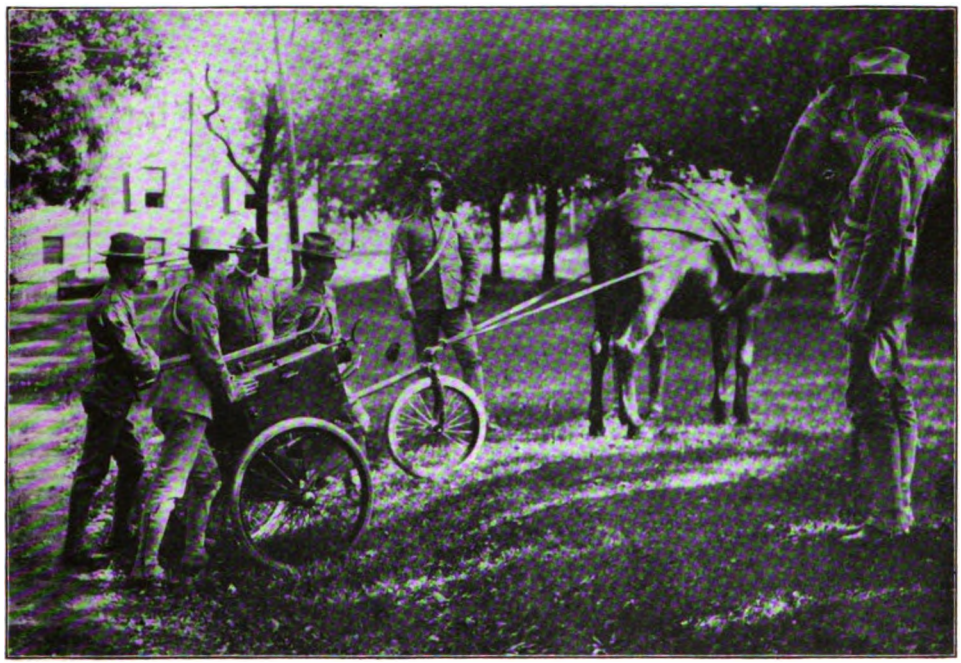
organize a system as speedily as possible. The foundation of the Russian use of the machine gun was found in the Gatlings at Santiago, and they have taught us nothing that we might not have learned from that experience.

Captain Parker's system rests upon a single fundamental proposition:

"If we can find a means of transporting within the zone of rifle fire a considerable quantity of ammunition, say six hundred pounds, then five hundred and sixty pounds of ammunition with a machine gun is worth more than six hundred pounds without the gun. In other words, such a gun, weighing not over forty pounds, is worth its weight in ammunition upon the battlefield."

The outfit consists of an ammunition and machine gun-cart, running upon three wheels. The frame is of steel tubing; the wheels have ball-bearings and are rubber-tired. It is capable of carrying a load of one thousand five hundred pounds. Two ammunition chests are suspended from, and two other chests are carried upon the frame: in these are packed sixty-five hundred rounds. This ammunition is immediately available for either the machine gun upon the cart, or the infantry firing-line, as may be determined in time of action. Practical tests have demonstrated that the outfit, thus loaded, may be easily brought forward by two or three men over almost any kind of ground. The cart, gun, and ammunition can be carried by three pack-mules without imposing an excessive burden. Set up and loaded, it may be moved by a single mule over almost any path or trail. It may also be pushed forward by two men to any position designated.



THE AMMUNITION AND MACHINE GUN CART
It may easily be conveyed by two or three men over any kind of ground

By the use of a pack frame, cart and gun can be disassembled and packed upon the gun mule in fifty-seven seconds. From pack, the gun may be placed in action in less than one minute. By removing the wheels, the cart is converted into a perfectly stable firing platform, the piece being served by a single man, sheltered by the ammunition boxes piled before him. These are painted olive-drab, and are almost invisible at a short distance.

A system of instruction has been worked out under the direction of the War Department for a detachment consisting of a single squad for the double

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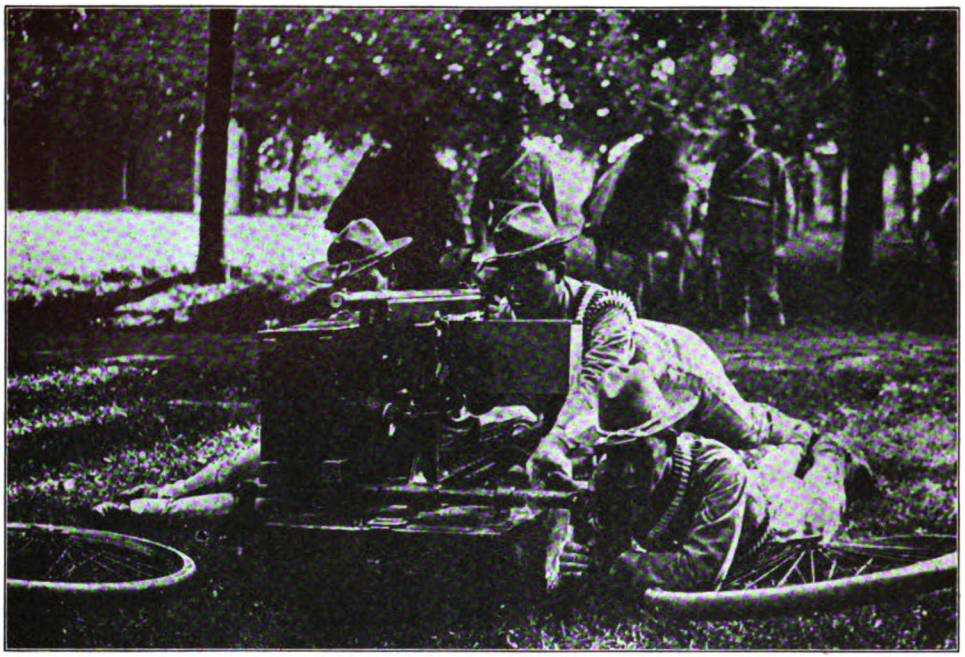

IN FIRING POSITION
By removing the wheels the cart is converted into a perfectly stable firing platform

duty of machine-gun service and ammunition supply for a battalion of infantry. Legal authority has been found by which such organizations may be formed and equipped by executive order without new legislation, and at a total expense of $65,000 for the battalion. Systematic instruction in the methods of operating the apparatus will undoubtedly be incorporated in the course at the General Service and Staff College and in post schools for officers and non-commissioned officers, in order to develop the highest usefulness of the new element about to be introduced upon the battlefield.

At the Fort Riley maneuvers, which took place in October, 1903, the apparatus was given a complete demonstration in the presence of the members of the board of ordnance and fortification and many officers of high rank. Brigadier-General J. F. Bell, Brigadier-General F. D. Grant, and Major-General J. C. Bates were present. This demonstration of the wonderful efficiency, and almost unlimited possibilities of the apparatus, was the means of inspiring the war-makers with a full appreciation of its potentialities, and of the added power which it will give into the hands of the infantry.

Photographing Through a Telegraph Wire

By Alfred Gradenwitz

THE problem of making visible to those telephoning or telegraphing through an electric wire, the person standing at the other end of the latter, has tempted the mind of many an inventor, but so far has remained a dream unrealized. Far less difficult than this "television" has it been found to transmit through a telegraph wire a handwritten message, or drawing, and this result is obtained in what is called a "telautograph." Professor Korn, of Munich, has even been successful in reproducing at the other end of the wire any photograph placed at the starting-point of the latter. His apparatus enables a photographic portrait of ordinary size to be transmitted within ten to twenty minutes to distances of several thousands of kilometers.

The principle underlying this apparatus consists in decomposing the original photograph into as many sections or "bricks" as possible, transmitting the luminous intensity corresponding to each section through the telegraph line, in the

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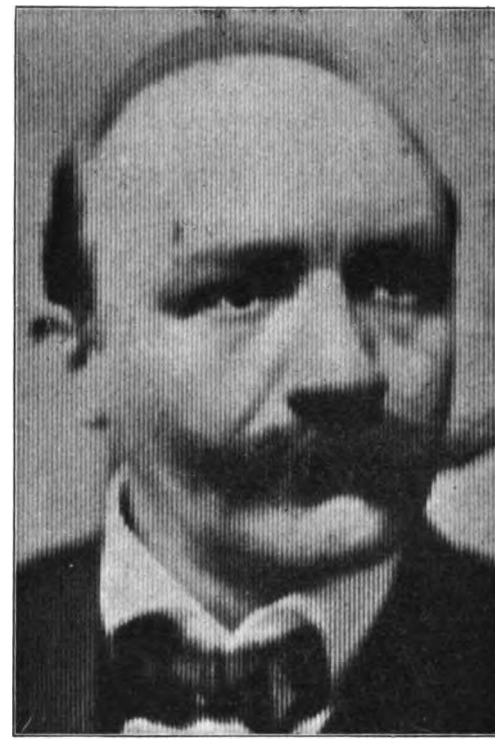
shape of an electric current of variable intensity, and again composing at the remote end the sections telegraphed with their respective luminous intensities so as to reconstitute the original picture. The apparatus constructed by Professor Korn is quite automatical in its working, excluding any interference on the part of the operator.

In automatically gaging the luminous intensity of each section or "brick" of the original photograph, a remarkable property shown by selenium is utilized, which substance under the influence of light undergoes an alteration in electrical resistance. The photograph is wound on a glass cylinder in the shape of a transparent film, the light of a lamp being concentrated by a lens on a small section of it. The bundle of light rays traversing this section strikes a selenium cell through which an electric current is thrown from an accumulator battery to the receiving apparatus installed at the other end of the wire. The brighter the section traversed by the light, the more intense will be the illumination of the selenium cell and the greater the intensity of the current flowing from the transmitting to the receiving apparatus. The glass cylinder is free to rotate, and by the aid of a thread on its axle, is displaced after each rotation, alongside the axis, through a small given length, say, one millimeter, thus successively bringing each of the sections of the photograph into the interval between the lamp and the selenium cell, while throwing toward the receiver a current the intensity of which corresponds to the greater or less transparence of the section.

In order to recompose the picture from the current intensities coming from the transmitter, the luminous intensity of a lamp is influenced by the current. Professor Korn uses for this lamp an exhausted tube giving out at certain pressures radiations of remarkable photographic efficiency, the intensity of which is readily controlled. In fact such a tube is known to become luminous whenever high tension currents, e. g. Tesla currents, or high tension alternate currents of very high frequency, are led through it by means of two metal electrodes. The tube in question, which is only a few centimeters in length and at most one centimeter in diameter, is entirely wrapped in black paper and sealing-wax, only a very small window, of about 1-16 square millimeter, being left through which the rays from the tube are allowed to fall on the photographic paper or film of the receiving



A PHOTOGRAPH REPRODUCED THROUGH A TELEGRAPH WIRE

apparatus. This film is again wound on a cylinder moving past the window of this tube in exactly the same way as the transmitting cylinder with the original photograph between the lamp and selenium cell. Provided the motion of the cylinders at the transmitting end corresponds exactly to that of the cylinder at the receiving station (that is to say, if both motions are synchronical), and provided the tube be made to give out radiations of an intensity corresponding to the intensity of the current traversing the circuit, the luminous tube will obviously reproduce on the receiving film the original photograph.

The intensity of the radiations given out from the tube is made to correspond to the intensity of the currents traversing

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the line, that is to say, to the luminous intensity of the several sections of the original photograph, by the aid of a set of graduated resistances inserted in the Tesla current circuit. The needle of a galvanometer is made to slide alongside four combs comprising a set of thin mica and metal plates laid above one another and between each two of which some portion of the resistances is inserted.

While the reproductions of original photographs at first obtained, just sufficed to show the likeness of the person in question, the inventor has recently so greatly improved his apparatus by compensating the inertia of the selenium cell, that his latest productions are of remarkable distinctness, and some of real beauty. At the photographical exhibition which was recently held in Berlin, these greatly improved photographs, of which a sample is reproduced herewith, were not yet on show.

Immigration and the Negro Problem

By Walter L. Fleming

THE recent session in Nashville, Kentucky, of the Southern Immigration and Industrial Association, which was formed a year ago as the Southern Quarantine and Immigration Conference, brought into greater prominence the relation between immigration to the South and the race problem. Most of the speeches made at the meeting were in advocacy of state-aided immigration bureaus, and the association resolved to request the southern governors, of whom several were present, to recommend that ample appropriations be made by the legislatures to establish state bureaus, which should send agents to Europe and to our own Northwest to get white farmers and laborers. A few of the delegates declared in favor of waiting to see if negro labor could not be made more efficient, but the majority wanted foreigners brought in as soon as possible in large numbers, not only to relieve the labor situation, but to assist toward a possible solution of the vexing race question.

The recent phenomenal prosperity of the South, which exists mainly in the white districts, has made painfully significant the economic inefficiency of the average negro laborer. As wages have been increased he has been able to work less, so that many contractors and other employers of unskilled and semi-skilled labor, in order to have sufficient labor, are obliged to carry twice or three times as many names on their rolls as they need laborers. Some come and work one day, others another, but often even this scheme fails, because there are not enough negroes. Now when there are two jobs for every man it is no longer possible, as it once was, to get two men for every job. The average negro of to-day is in productive capacity much inferior to his slave grandfather of 1860.

Now also for the first time the laboring class of whites, especially about the cities, are beginning to show signs of race prejudice in labor matters and to favor the coming in of foreign whites. The Atlanta riot was to a certain extent based upon irritation due to economic rivalry of the races in that city; and after the riot were heard frequent demands that only whites be employed in certain occupations. Such demands are heard with increasing frequency. This may, or may not, be due to the influence of labor unions; the truth is difficult to ascertain. Among the whites the desire for immigration embraces both classes—the employers and the employees. And while a few years ago they were inclined to object to any but the best of North-European immigrants, now less is heard as to preferences—any kind is wanted.

Quite naturally the negroes are opposed to immigration, as they have been since the war. The negro legislature of South Carolina in 1870 repealed all laws favoring immigration, and the blacks threatened to exterminate immigrants who might be brought to that state. Now, however, they appear to take slight interest in the matter, feeling that they are safe against white immigration for the future as they have been in the past.

A vague fear or dislike of the negro is one of the greatest obstacles in the way of immigration to the South. The foreigner and the northern laborer fear to go there with their families among the blacks, about whom they have heard so much that was not good. Consequently at the Immigration Association much was said about this aspect of the immi-

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gration problem. Governors Cox of Tennessee and Hayward of South Carolina declared that before the South could expect large numbers of settlers from abroad it would have to be made safer by strict enforcement of all laws, especially vagrancy laws. John Sharp Williams, in a letter to the association, suggested that a mounted police be established to patrol rural districts.

It is believed in the South that the coming in of great numbers of whites will have a good effect ultimately upon the negro. It will stimulate him; it will introduce new methods, like intensive farming; it will dilute the dense negro population, and perhaps cause a scattering of the negroes to the North and West. As long as the negroes are segregated in the Black Belt there is no hope for progress; but it is well known that negroes in the North, and in the white districts of the South, work better and prosper better than those in the Black Belt, where there is lacking the guidance, competition and public opinion of the whites. Whether all this will come to pass is doubtful; but it is certain that the fine opportunities offered in the South will soon result in a considerable transfer of whites to that section. The railroads are already carrying thousands a year to their southern lands, and to Charleston and New Orleans immigration steamers are now running.

Our Murderous Industrialism

By C. H. Mark

IF the United States were to engage annually in a war resulting in a loss of five hundred and fifty thousand injured and killed, the entire country would soon rise in protest against such senseless loss of human life.

But unknown to the average citizen, a peaceful warfare, entailing a loss of over half a million in killed and injured is annually being waged in this country to-day, and gives promise of continuing for some time to come. This stupendous loss results from the intense struggle of twenty-nine million wage-earners for international industrial supremacy. The rank and file of the army directly engaged in it is composed of the sturdy American artisan, while indirectly it affects fifty million more—the family unit—dependent upon his efforts for support.

In the development of our modern industrial system the first thought has been to reduce the cost of production to a science. This aim has been accomplished, until we are successfully competing in the markets of the world, our exports of 1905 amounting to $700,000,000. But hand in hand with this praiseworthy progress, the captains of industry have entirely lost sight of the value of human life, the first real asset of any nation's industrial scheme.

The rapid introduction of automatic machinery seems also to indicate a tendency to minimize the value of the individual worker as an actual producer, by supplanting him and saving the cost of production. From a hand-worker we have witnessed the evolution of the artisan into a mere cog in the machinery of industry. It is plain that the machine and not the man is the first consideration in modern industrial progress.

But the dependence of man upon machinery for his daily bread has vastly increased the risk of life and limb. The speeding-up process, the introduction of new machinery and the national failure to safeguard the same, have increased this risk to an alarming extent.

It is not a cause of wonder, then, that our factories and mills annually set adrift an army of maimed and crippled workers numbering over two hundred and twenty-five thousand; or that the rush of building and construction causes an annual loss in killed and injured of two hundred and thirty-five thousand wage-earners. Following this disregard of human life into the railroad industry, the Interstate Commerce Commission reports show a similar loss of ninety-four thousand. Of the fifteen states reporting losses in mining operations, the list of casualties number 5,986. Of the remaining fifteen states, keeping no record of accidents, John Mitchell estimates that the total loss of life would easily be twelve thousand in this field of industry. Completing the losses in the five great industries, agriculture would add to the grand total over nine thousand accidents annually. And this is for an average year.

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Of the total, approximately five hundred and fifty thousand, fifteen per cent are killed and the remainder, or nearly half a million, are left to fight a one-sided battle for existence. The meaning of these facts can be fully appreciated only when the individual artisan who has been maimed or killed is considered as an economic asset. Recent experiments in New York and Chicago, where special forms of employment bureaus have sought to reëstablish the injured, have shown that about forty per cent of the partially incapacitated possess certain earning power. But even this small percentage is not soundly reëstablished in other lines of employment. The result is that nearly five hundred thousand producers are left dependent upon the charity of family, friends or the state.

Ultimately, statistics prove that eleven per cent of all industrial cripples become public charges. How many more, indirectly dependent upon the bread-winner, hover on the border line of poverty and finally cross it, no definite facts now indicate. We do know, however, that in the United States an increasing number of people are constantly on the verge of poverty. Robert Hunter has estimated this class in our country at ten million and experienced charity workers are prone to place the estimate quite that high.

In England Charles Booth has shown that out of a total population of forty-five million over thirteen million are in the same pitiable condition. At a recent meeting in Cooper Union, when the American Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education was formed, it was stated by Mr. Alfred Mosely and Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip that the same causes responsible for these conditions in England are threatening to undermine our own economic structure, and it is plain that we may well heed England's experience. The same ruthless disregard for the life and powers of endurance of the English artisan, which has cost England her one-time industrial supremacy, is eating at the vitals of our own economic system.

While the death roll of labor may not be estimated in terms of money with absolute accuracy, because of the dearth of statistics, it can be conservatively estimated with the facts at hand. Considering $500 as a fair annual wage for the artisan, we may safely arrive at the loss through partial and total disablement. For the five hundred thousand thus injured, the loss in wages alone would be over $250,000,000 annually. The loss in production would amount to twice this sum.

But the foregoing is only a partial truth. If the disabled are not reëstablished, and there is little hope that they can be, they will become public charges, as we have shown. Poor-relief statistics show that it costs $6,000 to maintain a pauper during his natural lifetime. This means that the United States annually contracts to pay over one billion dollars for the support of these injured toilers.

Up to the present time, but little effort has been made to check this waste, through our national failure to study industrial conditions and especially accidents in industry, as do France, Germany and Switzerland. The mass of the people are but slightly aware of the burdens that such accidents entail. The employer forgets in the haste of production that he and other taxpayers are meeting this loss through an increased tax rate.

But the social loss and the cost in misery can never be fully estimated. This loss reaches down into the very vitals of our social structure. The demoralization of the home, the enforced poverty, and the loss of self-respect can not be reduced to cold figures. When the injured worker—let us say the man who has lost an arm or a leg—is turned out of the mill or factory, no longer an economic asset, to fight a hopeless battle under a dreadful handicap, the loss is first felt in the home. The wife may for a time keep up the struggle, or the children may be forced prematurely to sweat out their young life's blood in the mills or before the fiery furnaces. Two million children now thus employed are a gruesome testimonial to this fact. The man himself soon becomes a moral and social derelict and ends in the city park, the cheap lodging-house or the alms-house, drifting into social and economic parasitism, his only crime a physical handicap.

When the country awakens to these

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PRINCE RUPERT HARBOR AND MOUNT HAYS

Abundant forests and shrubbery clothe the side of the lower mountains where eventually parks and residence sites will be planned

conditions, as it is beginning to do, and learns that accidents in industry can be largely avoided by the installation of safety devices; when the several states and the national government enact and enforce suitable legislation protecting the lives of its citizens; and finally when our country generally follows the example of Germany, France, Switzerland, and so forth, abroad, and Massachusetts and Illinois at home, by studying and applying the principles of workingmen's insurance, we may begin to hope for relief from the far-reaching effects of industrial accidents and unhealthful conditions of employment. Until that time we may expect to go blindly on, wrecking homes by killing and maiming the breadwinners; driving thousands into poverty; wasting millions in production and undermining our economic structure, until we face a condition similar to that in England to-day.

Prince Rupert—A Metropolis of To-morrow

By John Nelson

A READY-MADE city is an innovation even in an age which delights in upsetting the customs and traditions of its predecessors. Dalny was perhaps the first attempt at such a departure, when the Slav built on Korea Bay an entrepot for military aggression. The cue has been taken by a great railway corporation, the Grand Trunk Pacific, which is busily bringing into existence on the northwest coast of British Columbia a great commercial terminus for its transcontinental line and for its ocean greyhounds to the opulent Orient.

In the process, old methods of city building will be reversed, and even old proverbs will be repealed. "Rome was not built in a day," but Prince Rupert will spring almost full-armed into the arena to dispute supremacy with cities which measure their age by half centuries, and their wealth by millions of dollars.

The manner of growth of this new hub of trade will differ from that of any other city in the world. From the stone age communities have grown in but one way. A hunter finds on the shore of a bay, or a farmer on the banks of a stream, a convenient point to form a base for his activities and labor. He rears his cabin, and by and by other families join with him to form a community, whose common needs are soon supplied by village store, and school and church. With expanding population, increased products, and greater needs, transportation facilities follow, first in the form of a wagon or canoe, and ultimately by locomotive or by steamer. The trails become streets, the shacks business blocks of granite or brick, and the chance loca-

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tion of the squatter becomes a vested right of varying value according to the proportions which the community assumes. A name for the aggregation of dwellings is considered only when the place requires identification for postal purposes.

In the embryo city under consideration, all this has been reversed, and the ultimate carefully considered in the preliminary. When by an arrangement with the parliament of Canada the company was empowered to proceed with the construction of a new overland railroad which, in conjunction with a national line, would extend from St. John on the Atlantic seaboard to an unnamed port on the Pacific, one of their first concerns was to secure an ideal deep-water bay on the shores of which they might found a fitting terminal for wheel and keel. Many hamlets, already ports of call for the coasting vessels from Victoria, Vancouver, and Seattle for Skagway, put forward vigorous claims for the distinction. But the railway company ignored them.

Fitting out a stanch little launch, they dispatched it north from Victoria in search for the site of a city. For months the Fern cruised through waters whose placid surface had probably never before been broken by a craft more pretentious than the dug-out of the wandering Siwash, until pushing through the channel from the open sea they found lying behind the natural breakwater of Digby Island an immense basin, fit to float the entire shipping of the Pacific Ocean. Skirting it the shore line of Kaien Island promised well for the railway terminals, and so, after soundings had demonstrated the depth of the water, Kaien Island was selected as the Pacific coast home of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway of Canada.

Negotiation with the government of the province of British Columbia soon placed the company in possession of ten thousand acres of land on Kaien Island, and it is here they are now hewing out the site of the future metropolis. Almost the next step was the selection of the name of the city. This was done by prize competition, and that of Prince Rupert, first governor of the Hudson's Bay Company, was chosen as the appellation of the place.

But it is in the detail work of preparing the future home of thousands that the company has reversed all precedent. Five survey parties have spent the summer carefully going over every foot of the ground and collecting data as to elevations, and other points for the information of a board of engineers and landscape gardeners. Not an acre of land will be sold until every point with respect to drainage, sewerage, water supply and general effect has been considered. First of all, ample terminals for wharves and yards will be provided for, in all probability on the lower levels near the shore, where miles of coast line make the question of shipping facilities a simple one to solve. The plateau, extending for a distance of from half a mile to two or three miles back from the water, will likely be the location selected for the business and residential section, while the slope of the mountain which rises at the back of the town will afford delightful drives, parks, and choice locations for more pretentious homes. All this is now clothed in the abundant forest and shrubbery common to all parts of the northern Pacific coast. On the townsite proper it is not dense, but when the base of the hills is reached the giant firs, hemlock and yellow cedar abound. The arrangement and disposition of every acre of this land will have been decided by the board spoken of, before next spring, when the land will be placed on the market, and the real estate speculator and operator come to their own.

The site lends itself to the laying out of such a City Beautiful as the company have in mind. From the elevated parts of the island the glorious waterways leading to the harbor proper stretch away in delightful vistas. Behind the city the mountains rise to an altitude of two thousand feet, while Mount Hays, the premier peak (named after the president of the road), stretches its head heavenward for a thousand feet more. Off to the northwest, through a channel studded with islands, can be descried the pretty white village of Metlakhatla, the "Holy City" of missionary Duncan's labors, and with which his name is indelibly associated.

Stretching its length opposite the city, to whose harbor it forms a natural and

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effectual breakwater, lies Digby Island, from time immemorial the garden of the Tsimpshean Indians, and which will in future years be a suburb of smiling orchards and gardens. A number of pretty salt lakes in the vicinity will form ideal bathing resorts, while Shawatlam Lake, with its fifty-foot waterfall, will supply fresh water for a city of one hundred thousand inhabitants. The harbor itself varies in depth from twelve to thirty fathoms, and the entrance to it from the ocean is through a wide and deep channel. Indentations of the harbor extend fourteen miles inland with good depth of water, so that the accommodation for shipping is practically unlimited.

The richest halibut banks on the Pacific, those of Queen Charlotte Islands, lie a few hours' steaming from the city, and other deep-sea fishing is equally good. A virgin territory rich in gold, copper and coal, and with great agricultural and timber resources, lies at the back of the new town, insuring it a large local trade apart from the through and transpacific commerce for which the line is being built.

Predictions as to the future of this "ready-made" town open up a field for speculation which is outside the scope of this article. The growth of cities like Seattle and Vancouver are an illustration of what a few years will accomplish, even under conditions which might be regarded as normal. In the case of Prince Rupert, however, the railway company are adopting a policy which will immensely accelerate development. They are extending their egis to fishing, milling, mining, timber, and other subsidiary companies, while it is expected that when the first train steams into Prince Rupert in 1911—the statutory limit within which it must be completed—that a line of transpacific liners will lie at her wharves ready to receive into their capacious holds the merchandise of America for the marts of Asia, to which it is nearer than any other American port by five hundred miles.

THE CITY OF PRINCE RUPERT AS IT WAS IN OCTOBER, 1906
It is located on Kaien Island, and back of the city the mountains rise to an altitude of 2,000 feet

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BOOKS AND READING

An Intimate History of the German Empire*

By Shaller Mathews

PRINCE VON HOHENLOHE did not play the rôle of Von Moltke or of Bismarck, but, in importance to the German empire, his career was second only to theirs. Born in 1819, he early attracted attention because of his birth and ability. He shared in the movements of 1848 and clearly saw the significance of the popular discontent. He took a prominent part in the highly important constitutional struggles which led up to the formation of the empire. His journal and papers abound in information of the utmost importance to the historian of the growth of the German constitution, but his real career may be said really to have begun when on December 31, 1866, he was made Minister of Foreign Affairs and President of the Council of Ministers of Bavaria.

Had the Prince's career closed with his retirement from the Bavarian cabinet in 1870, his volumes would even then have been of first importance, but there remained to him more than thirty years of life and of service to the imperial idea. He was in the reichstag from 1870 to 1874, ambassador at Paris from 1874 to 1885, the governor of Alsace-Lorraine from 1885 to 1894, and then after the fall of Caprivi, although a man of seventy-five, he became the chancellor of the empire, a position he held until within a few months of his death. Intrusted with the most delicate and vital responsibilities, he showed tact and foresight and breadth of view which made him one of that group of wonderful old men: Bismarck, Moltke and Gladstone, who held in their hands the fortunes of Europe.

The memoirs show an intimate knowledge of German politics, which could have been equaled only by Bismarck himself. But while the third volume of Bismarck's memoirs has never been published because of offending the emperor, the Hohenlohe memoirs are frankness themselves. It was the Prince's habit to keep a journal of all his important conversations, and as one reads his pages one is not surprised that William II. should have been thunderstruck at their publication. Prince Hohenlohe relates not only his own share in the making of history under the three German emperors, but he narrates sayings of the emperor concerning Bismarck, conversations with Bismarck himself and with the Empress Victoria, as well as with those who enjoyed the intimacy of the highest personages. While his notes are brief, they contain a detailed account of the emperor's reasons for the dismissal of Bismarck, as well as characteristic sayings of Bismarck relative to his own position under the Emperor Frederick, and his retirement. But they are far enough from gossip. Every sentence is history. No more dispassionate disclosure of the very heart of imperial policy was ever made. Confidences are printed without reservation. And it is probably safe to say that the publication of Bismarck's third volume will not materially affect our comprehension of his unwilling retirement. William II. described it as a compulsory choice between a Bismarck and a Hohenzollern dynasty.

All in all, these memoirs are the most important historical material relative to German history since the Bismarck memoirs. For their lack of bias as well as for the reasons above given, they are even more important than those memoirs for the years 1887 to 1900. But in addition to their historical value they also possess interest for the general reader. They take one into the confidence of kings and emperors, queens and statesmen. Thanks to them we know the personal and political motives of the chief actors in modern European history, concerning which we have hitherto been able only to speculate.

*Memoirs of Prince Chlodwig of Hohenlohe-Schillingsfuerst. Edited by Friedrich Curtis. New York: The Macmillan Company. Vol. I, lx, 405. Vol. II, ix, 519. $6. net.

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History and Travel

Correspondence of William Pitt with Colonial Governors. Edited by Gertrude Selwyn Kimball. New York: The Macmillan Company. 2 Vols. Pp. lxix, 445; xxiii, 502. $6.00 net.

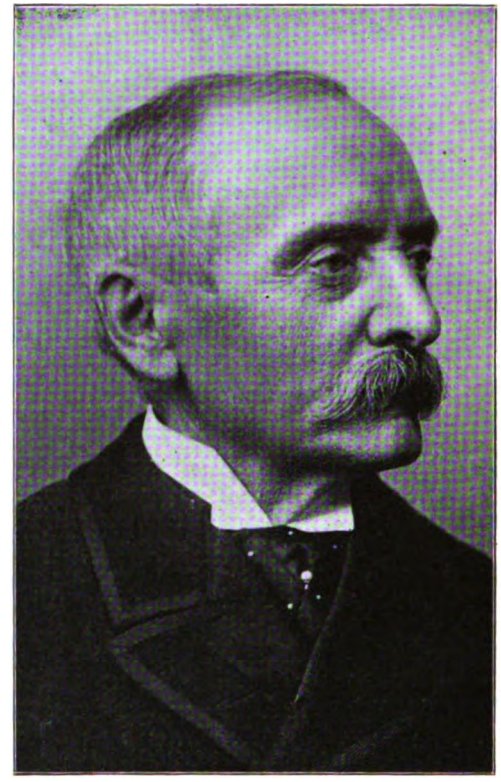
These are two noble volumes which have been edited under the auspices of the National Society of the Colonial Dames of America. They present all the correspondence of William Pitt with the colonial governors and military commanders in North America and the West Indies during the years when he was secretary of state. Of the 493 letters given, only sixty-eight have been previously printed. The documents have been copied carefully from the originals in the public record office in London. In some cases where there is repetition the letters have been edited, only an abstract being given, but in each case the omissions have been indicated. While the letters are military in their nature as a rule, there is much of the writer's individuality shown, so that they make a notable addition to the literature of American colonial times. The first letter bears date of December, 1776, the last, November, 1761. An introductory article by the editor gives a running summary of the principal events which took place during the years which are included. That part of the correspondence which relates to West Indian affairs is specially interesting, because devoted to matters not so familiar to the average reader as are those connected with the events on the mainland. There is every evidence of care in the work of preparation of the two volumes and it is a splendid testimonial to the good work which is being done by the patriotic hereditary societies in preserving valuable memorials of a bygone day in America.

Camp Fires in the Canadian Rockies. By William T. Hornaday. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. 350. $3.00 net.

Mr. Hornaday's splendid volume is a record of a vacation hunting trip in the mountains of British Columbia. If it were merely a collection of naturalist's notes it would need no apology as an addition to our limited knowledge of the country that succeeds our own late lamented "Wild West" as the nearest home of big game and magnificent scenery. But it has few technical descriptions and what little detailed information is given can be relied upon for scientific accuracy, for Mr. Hornaday's reputation as a naturalist and as director of the New York Zoölogical Park is well known. The book has all the adventure and excitement of a novel. It is refreshing and readable and there is an indefinable quality about the writing that seems to take one into the author's confidence and camp as a friend. A striking feature of the book is the photographs by Mr. John M. Phillips, some of them taken at the risk of his life.

A Tour of Four Great Rivers: being the Journal of Richard Smith. Edited by Francis W. Halsey. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. lxxiii, 102.

The four great rivers, part of whose course was explored by Richard Smith from May 5, 1769, to June 10, of the same year, are the Hudson, the Mohawk, the Susquehanna, and the Delaware. Using sloop, wagon, canoe, traveling by water, on the pioneer wagon roads and by Indian trails, Mr. Smith covered five hundred and fifty-eight miles during his five weeks' trip. He did not stop long at any one place, but he used his eyes to good advantage, and the descriptions which he gives of pioneer communities and Indian villages are interesting in the extreme. The editor has compiled a map to illustrate the journey, a real illumination of the text. He has also written a sketch of Smith, and has indicated the main facts about the pioneers who settled in the several valleys. A table of distances, some notes on the manners and customs of the Indians, and a well-appointed index make the book complete and a capital example of the work which is now being done in reprinting books long out of print and comparatively unavailable.



PRINCE CHLODWIG OF HOHENLOHE-SCHILLINGSFUERST

Whose Memoirs have made a sensation in Germany

It is a happy coincidence that the two books on London just issued simultaneously by different publishers are exact complements of each other. "A Wanderer in London" (Macmillan Co., $1.75 net), by E. V. Lucas, is a chatty, gossipy talk for the most part about the more serious and dignified phases of the big town. It is London as seen by a Londoner, a kind of modern "Spectator." The book rambles along as its title suggests. its three hundred pages always well written,

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sometimes with a good deal of the antiquarian spirit and often commenting in detail on pictures and houses. The volume is well illustrated with many monotones of famous paintings as well as with drawings in color. Mr. F. Berkeley Smith's book is totally different. "In London Town" (Funk & Wagnalls Co., $1.50 net) is written by a stranger, an American who has lived so long in Paris that it has become the standard for all comparisons. He looks for Parisian characteristics in London and often finds them. With a pen that records in much the same way as the camera of the moving-picture man, he sandwiches in between information of hotels and music-halls little stories written in the spirit of gaiety that marked his first book, "The Real Latin Quarter." The volume is as readable as a novel and is an enjoyable guide-book of the lighter side of London.

It was not an adventurous journey that Mrs. Gertrude Adams Fisher describes in "A Woman Alone In the Heart of Japan" (L. C. Page, $2.50), in spite of the implications of the title. But she had the seeing eye during all of her visit, and took with that a courage which enables her to set forth sides of Japanese life which too many tourists gloss over. The photographs used for illustrations have some of this boldness also, and fit the text admirably. Nor is Mrs. Fisher so wrapped in admiration for western civilization that she can not see more places than one where the Orient can give us instruction, notably in the sweet matter of courtesy. The story is well, but not remarkably, told, and the book is a handsome one.

Mrs. Myrta Avary's new volume, "Dixie After the War" (Doubleday, Page & Co., $2.75 net), is the outcome of a demand for a book dealing with the South after the war from a woman's point of view. Almost every phase of the remarkable epoch of the South for twelve years after the fall of Richmond is touched upon with many anecdotes and incidents gathered first-hand. Mrs. Avary's feminine insight has found much to record that has been neglected by our more exhaustive historians. Such things as the "Button Order," the "Oath of Allegiance" and the fashions may not be of history-making importance but they give an intimate picture of the social conditions of the reconstruction period.

Art and Literature

The Art of the Greeks. By H. B. Walters. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1906. Pp. xvi, 277, with 112 plates and 18 illustrations in the text. $6.00.

This handsome volume is, though not avowedly, an expansion of a little book on Greek art published by Mr. Walters two years ago. There is some rearrangement as well as a good deal of additional matter, but much of the text is unchanged. Apart from the beauty of its appearance, the best thing about the present treatise is its comprehensiveness. It devotes a chapter to prehistoric art in Greece, while for the historical period it deals not only with architecture, sculpture and painting, but also with the humbler artistic products — vases, terra-cotta, gems, coins and metalwork generally. Thus it covers much the same ground as the late Dr. A. S. Murray's "Handbook of Greek Archæology," over which it has the great advantage of embodying the most important discoveries of the last fifteen years. Otherwise the book is painfully disappointing. Some parts, to be sure, are better than others. Mr. Walters has done laborious work on Greek vases, terra-cotta and bronzes, and is thus qualified to write on these subjects with some authority. With Greek sculpture he seems to be much less well acquainted. What shall be said of a writer who argues from the modern hands of the Apollo Belvedere as if they were antique (p. 135)? The chapter on architecture is the worst of all; it is amazingly inadequate and inaccurate. Nor are the shortcomings of this volume redeemed, as they well might be, by enlightening and inspiring comments on the artistic qualities of the objects discussed. No doubt Mr. Walters admires the right things, but his style of criticism is rather superficial and rather dull. A really good book in English on the history of Greek art is still to seek.

Whatever George Brandes, the eminent Danish writer and "most influential of living critics," has to say about literature is worth listening to and the publishers are to be thanked for preserving in a little volume his essay "On Reading" (Duffield & Co., 75 cents net). It is not a pedantic discussion of the "hundred best books" nor an appeal to read the wearisome, moralizing literary histories of the world, but it is a sensible talk on reading. He believes that in the end a far broader field is opened up in reading ten books on some subject in which one is interested than in reading a hundred books about a hundred different things.

The three centuries following the Conquest form an exceedingly important era in the history of our literature. In that period were dug the vast, rich heaps of ore which English poets from then till now have been busy smelting and refining. Professor Schofield's account of this early Middle-English literature—"English Literature From the Norman Conquest," Chaucer, (Macmillan, $1.50 net), is in every way admirable. It is minutely and comprehensively descriptive, sagely and justly critical. The author brought to his task abundant scholarship, wide and intimate acquaintance with medieval European literature, and the good gift of literary appreciation that is catholic and discriminating.

Dr. William C. Gordon has made a study of "The Social Ideals of Alfred Tennyson," which constitutes an instructive study of the poet, the man, and the more characteristic ideas of the time, socially, in his own England. If the theme does not add to one's interest in the poet, it does to one's interest in the man. The distinct social service which Tennyson rendered to the world, by portraying with clearness, beauty and power the time in which he lived, is well indicated. The book will be welcomed as a real help in the more illuminating study of the social facts and factors, but its value, however, would have been enhanced had the author taken somewhat more pains to transfuse his treatment of it with the spirit of a true literary charm. (The University of Chicago Press.)

A vigorous defense of western civilization is

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the thin little book by William J. Bryan, "Letters to a Chinese Official (McClure, Phillips & Co., fifty cents). It makes no difference that the volume he answers is now known to be written by an Englishman; he criticises it just the same, for he is dealing with a book and not an author. If anybody wants to see the better side of the American spirit set forth, he should read this essay. It certainly ought to help foreign missions.

Another defense of the American spirit is Brander Matthews' essay, "The American Character," which has been issued in admirable fashion by McClure, Phillips & Co., (seventy-five cents net.) Taking his text from some disparaging remarks of a French critic Professor Matthews pleads that we are not chiefly concerned with making money or hostile to art or devoid of ideals. The essay is a good antidote for that superior contempt for American affairs which some seem to affect.

We ought to be thankful that Bradford Torrey's "Friends on the Shelf" is not Friends on the Bough or in the Brook or on Four Legs. Nature needs a rest. We all do. Back to books! If this volume of essays were not worth reading we should be tempted to dissemble the fact, for a nature writer trying to reform is a candidate for indulgent treatment. But it is worth reading. Of the dozen essays there are three or four that display quite unusual capacity in the estimation both of human and of literary values. For example, the essay on William Hazlitt with its illuminating discussion of sentimentalism; and again for example, the essay on Verbal Magic with its successful attempt to suggest the connotation of a frequent phrase of literary criticism. Every reader of this volume will wish he could share in still other of Mr. Torrey's literary intimacies. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., $1.25 net.)

Science and Out-of-Doors

The Bird: Its Form and Function. By C. William Beebe. New York: Henry Holt & Co. Pp. x, 496. $6.00.

Mr. Beebe has presented a popular study of birds from a new point of view. It is written for those who have passed through the first stage of interest in, and study of bird life. It is intended to follow a handbook of identification by a study of the physical life of the bird itself in many of its phases. It contains a general treatment of the adaptation of the bird to its needs and surroundings; its selection of food and haunts, its courtship, its nest-making, raising of young and evasion of dangers. The chapters on muscles and nerves, on the senses, and on the organs of nutrition are full of material interesting to nature-lovers. Observations and facts about the growth and development of feathers, their adaptation to flight and their protective coloring are numerous. How the grouse is provided with snowshoes, how the ibis' weight is distributed over the trembling surface of lily pads, and how the coot can feed in soft mud without sinking, is explained in a chapter entitled "Legs and Feet." Comparisons of beaks whose dissimilarity in form is due to different methods of getting food, are made in a fascinating chapter on "Beaks and Bills." The chapter on eggs makes the bird-lover long for the season of nests to come again. The text is well illustrated with fine photographs from preparations and from living birds. An appendix contains a select list of books from which more detailed information can be gained.

It is a pleasant book, quite free from mawkish sentiment and the ascription to animals of human intelligence, that Ernest Ingersoll has written and named "The Wit of the Wild" (Dodd, Mead & Co., $1.20 net). The reader can see for himself that it has not always been easy to avoid laying over human motives to deeds bearing close analogy to those of intelligent men and women, yet, nevertheless, the faith of science always comes to the rescue, and the wonders of instinct are not belittled. Mr. Ingersoll is one of the foremost of American historians, and his book is filled with little studies and genre pictures, always interesting, yet hardly momentous enough to find a place in his more serious and permanent work.

It is not every man who is a master of the technique of his subject who can write in the spirit of the poet, but that is what Professor C. William Beebe has done in "The Log of the Sun" (Henry Holt & Co., $6.00 net). Few more beautiful books have been published, for Walter King Stone has filled it with the most sympathetic drawings of life in the woods and in the ocean and in the brooks. Thanks both to the writer and to the artist, the volume is one of the choicest contributions to popularized science that we know.

George Wharton James took in a little deformed song-sparrow from a heartless world and gave it a good home while its little life lasted. "The Story of Scraggles" (Little, Brown & Co., $1.00) results, an extraordinary instance in bird psychology of true affection touchingly displayed.

Edward S. Morse is entertaining, no matter what he writes about. We have generally associated him with studies of Japanese and Chinese life, but now he appears as a popularizer of astronomy and particularly of the astronomy of Mr. Percival Lowell. "Mars and Its Mysteries" (Little, Brown & Co., $2.00 net) is a plea for taking Mr. Lowell and Professor Schiaparelli seriously. The book can not, of course, be treated as a piece of independent scientific investigation, but it is just the sort of volume to interest the intelligent reader and to cause him to speculate as to the Martians. Mr. Morse endeavors to maintain a neutral attitude, but his enthusiasm refuses to be suppressed and his volume reads like a campaign document. It is filled full of drawings and photographs of Mars and certainly makes a capital addition to what we may call the romance of science.

No book could be more delightful after its kind than T. F. Thistleton-Dyer's "Folk Lore of Women" (McClurg, $1.50 net), yet it must be admitted that it will delight men rather than women throughout its wise, witty, and literary pages. It proves, chiefly, that men have been

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vocal regarding the ills their flesh has been subject to and have cried aloud against them; while patient woman, suffering silently, has never had the opportunity until recently — much too late for purposes of folk lore — to say what she thought of men in any enduring way. But women may profit, even where they do not enjoy.

So great a gap stretches between the traditional shepherd we read of in the Scriptures and the modern shepherd reported from the far West, his very name changed to "sheep-herder," that Mrs. Mary Austin deserves the more credit for lending the completeness of literary charm to western experience in "The Flock" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., $2 net). Opprobrium of no uncertain sort attaches to the western sheepherder, against which the book must make its way; the challenge is gayly assumed, and the ancient occupation fully justified in this twentieth century of Christianity. Nothing less than extracts can convey the charm of style that goes into the writing.

Fiction

In the output of books for the Christmas season Christina Gowan Whyte's story, "The Story Book Girls" (Macmillan, $1.50), is likely to miss the attention which it really deserves. It is one of those rare books which without any pretense at excitement or tragedy are the sort that young girls can read with enjoyment. The half dozen girls and the three or four men who figure in its pages are real persons, and the story is so fresh and altogether charming that it will refresh even the most blasé reviewer. It is no small thing to write a volume that shall have in it no "problems" and yet be full of genuine human interest.

Mrs. Hugh Fraser's novel, "In the Shadow of The Lord" (Holt, $1.50), is a sincere and painstaking romance centering about the mother of George Washington. There is in it nothing of slap-dash, but it abounds in serious elaboration of character and episode. Mary Washington is dear to every American and Mrs. Fraser's volume will serve to increase the regard for her character. The volume covers the early years of George Washington, but his great figure never obscures that of his mother. It is a story of real worth, and although a trifle prolix and occasionally tedious, is one that every boy and girl ought to read in connection with the study of American history.

Every woman who has passed through the trials of a novice in the kitchen will heartily appreciate Marion Harland's "Distractions of Martha" (Charles Scribner's Sons, $1.25), while those who look forward to such trials with hope and trepidation will find in the story not only a lively and amusing narrative, but also a fund of information on many of the problems of household economy.

"Hearts Triumphant," by Edith Sessions Tupper (D. Appleton & Co., $1.50), is, as one might expect from the title, an out-and-out love story. It is true that Aaron Burr plays the foil against the hero, but any other man would have done just as well. The author succeeds in creating a lively interest in the simple little country girl, the heroine.

Henry M. Ryder has brought together three exceedingly well-told stories — some publishers might even call them novelettes — in his "Beached Keels" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., $1.50). They are the tales of a Canadian island — is it Grand Menan? — and are full of genuine sentiment and power, sometimes running close to tragedy, but always full of healthy human feeling. They are among the best of the pieces of genuinely literary sketches of the day.

Mrs. Steele Mackaye has dramatized Jane Austin's famous novel "Pride and Prejudice" (Duffield & Company, $1.25). The play reproduces the spirit of the novel and seems to possess good acting possibilities, although it involves no particular dramatic situations. The dialogue is sparkling and full of humor.

Among the illustrated new editions of our old favorites there is none more attractive than George Eliot's "Scenes of Clerical Life," illustrated by Hugh Thompson. (The Macmillan Company, $2.00.) From its highly original cover to its last full-page colored cut it is a delight. Mr. Thompson's work has distinction as well as admirable drawing, and the coloring is as delicate as water-color painting.

Alice Brown has brought together a number of charming stories in "The County Road" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., $1.50). Most, if not all, of these stories have appeared in magazines, but they are none the less good reading. There is a delicacy of touch and wholesomeness of sentiment in all that Miss Brown writes which lifts it above most of the ordinary short stories. Her characters are real human beings and are not troubled by abnormalities of any sort. What is more, even though they do not always do the things one would have them do, they do not ordinarily make fools of themselves.

Sewell Ford we have come to class among the brightest of the rapid sketch-artists whom newspapers have developed. His "Shorty McCabe" is a worthy successor of "Chimmie McFadden," only he is a good deal more gentlemanly in point of vocabulary. Shorty McCabe is an ex-prize-fighter who becomes a teacher of physical training in New York and has a great variety of delightful adventures with folks of various sorts. There is not a vulgar line in the book and there is not a page without a touch of humor, and healthy humor at that. (Mitchell Kennerly, $1.50.)

Thomas Nelson Page has published a new edition of "On New Found River," somewhat enlarged, but still the same charming story that we knew years ago. The present edition has some delightful illustrations in color drawn by John Edwin Jackson, and like all of Mr. Page's work, possesses a sentiment and a beauty which help us understand the spirit of the old South far better than many treatises on sociology. (Scribner's, $1.00 net.)

"Old Cronak" (Decker Publishing Co., $1.50) is in several ways a remarkable story. It bears the name of Joseph Haldane on the title-page as author, and it is he who tells the tale and is not the least of the characters in the narrative. He has done what few contemporary writers care to do, in the way of giving himself abundance of space to say what he has to say in. He

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thus enables himself to give both heights and depths to his argument, and the development of character is marked. The book is fully twice as long as the conventional novel; but it can not be said to be twice as interesting. Mrs. Cronak, wife of an old sea-captain now engaged in various businesses on the shores of Lake Michigan, is the one person who is likely to live in the reader's memory, the younger women being only partially alive and the love-making rather unconvincing.

The volume of short stories called "Caybigan" (McClure, Phillips & Co., $1.50), by James Hopper, has a new setting for stories of Americans. The life of our soldiers and teachers in the Philippines, exciting, discouraging or romantic, is treated with an exuberance of youth, breeziness of style and pleasing economy of words. Many of the stories have appeared in magazines and the worst thing that can be said about them is that they often conform a little too readily to the time-honored requirements of the sort of literature to which they belong.

In announcing a new book by "Ralph Connor," "The Doctor" (Fleming H. Revell Company, $1.50), the publishers evince their confidence as to its welcome by the public by issuing a first edition of 100,000 copies. The story narrates the struggles of a young farmer for a medical education and the simultaneous opening of a career as a singer to the girl he loves. Her ambition leads her to refuse marriage with him, and her other love affairs and especially the temptation to which the doctor's brother—a divinity student rejected by a church council—yields, furnish various exciting episodes. In the development of his characters Mr. Gordon has done good work, but we miss somewhat the delicacy and spiritual uplift of his earlier books.

It is given to few writers in the present day to manifest an imagination so vivid and picturesque as that shown by Miss Zona Gale in "Romance Island" (Bobbs-Merrill, $1.50). So filled with the haziness and splendor of dreams at their best is it that Coleridge's Xanadu comes into mind repeatedly as the wonders of the island of Yaque unfold themselves. For the rest, it has in it the atmosphere, faithfully reproduced, of a New York newspaper office. The inhabitants of the island have passed the civilization of to-day by thousands of years, have mastered the difficulties of the Fourth Dimension, by means of which they keep their existence from the eyes of Europe, and have even passed into a Fifth, and still higher dimensions. The Americans supply the love-making, however, in quite the twentieth-century manner.

Miss Frances Charles has less poetry and more action in her latest story, "Pardner of Blossom Range" (Little, Brown & Co., $1.50), than in any of its predecessors, though the scene of this, too, is in the southwestern arid lands of the United States. "Pardner" is a horse. Holly Blossom is the belle of all that region, who had conceived a fine prejudice against soldiers in general. An Apache raid brought to her grandfather's ranch an officer out of uniform, and he went far toward conquering her affections. Pardner did the rest in a fight with the Indians, and the conclusion is peace. Sentiment, rather than atmosphere, is dominant in the story, which loses in literary quality and distinction by the exchange.

Miss M. Imlay Taylor has laid down the sword and cloak of historical romance and clad her characters for "The Impersonator" (Little, Brown & Co., $1.50) in the silks and broadcloths of a modern Washington drawing-room. A most unattractive girl art student in Paris has sought to curry favor with her aunt by sending as her own portrait the likeness of a girl friend. When an invitation to spend three months with the aunt comes as a result, the niece persuades a really charming young woman to take her place. It is inevitable that in Miss Taylor's skilful hands the sympathies of the reader should go with the false Miss Hadding, and the end will be found satisfactory.

"The Plow Woman" (McClure, Phillips & Co., $1.50) of Miss Eleanor Gates is a well-told story of the far West of a generation ago, in which a shiftless Southern widower comes to a northwestern town in embryo with his two daughters. There is fighting, complications over a land claim, the hurry and discipline of an army post, and all sorts of excitement; better still, the persons of the story stand forth distinctly in the reader's eye when the book is finished.

Elinor Glyn has written another book. It is called "Beyond the Rocks" (Harper's, $1.50). It is a story of a love affair carried on by the wife of a rich but stupid Englishman with a charming member of the nobility. Such a description sounds unpromising. As a matter of fact the story centers about the self-mastery and nobility of the wife, lover, and husband alike. If we must have books dealing with this theme it is desirable that they possess this characteristic. The volume has much of the sprightliness of the author's other books and has the further excellence of omitting some of those characteristics that made those other volumes rather dubious reading for supposedly unsophisticated youths.

Myrtle Reed's holiday volume, "A Spinner in the Sun," seems to us to be rather above the average of the author's works. (Putnam's, $1.50.) When one stops to think about it the plot is rather improbable, for we are not accustomed to women who take vows never to let people see their faces because they are so fatally beautiful. But we do not read Miss Reed's stories for the plot but rather for the clever character-drawing and the conversations. And these are certainly entertaining.

"Henry Northcote" (Herbert B. Turner & Co., $1.50), by John Collis Snaith, is a psychological mystery story in the best style of this London writer. Intensely told, it reeks of the great city's damp garrets, dark courts and foggy alleys. Set in this background are the brilliant conversations of the young and obscure advocate who, by a stroke of genius, secures the acquittal of a murderess. But that is not all; there are the genii, and the woman, and the man after the acquittal. The story is thoroughly unusual, one might say uncanny.

Mr. Frankfort Moore produced a really well-constructed and sincere piece of literature in "My Jessamy Bride" (Fox, Duffield & Co., $2.00 net). As we all ought to know, the story

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centers about an unfortunate love affair of one of Oliver Goldsmith's friends, and introduces the reader to that interesting group of men to which Goldsmith, Dr. Johnson, Edmund Burke and Sir Joshua Reynolds belonged. The new edition is charming in make-up and well worth owning.

Juvenile

A collection of old-time favorites for little children, with words and music, is to be found in "The Babies' Hymnal" (A. C. McClurg & Co., $1.25). The design, general arrangement and binding are so attractive in form and color that a pleasing giftbook is the result. From the educational standpoint of to-day the collection would be a better one if certain of these old hymns for little children had been omitted, e. g. "When He Cometh." But the others make the book fully worth its money.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, put out four new titles in their series of "Life Stories for Young People"; they are "William of Orange," "Barbarossa," "The Nibelungs" and "Gudrun." These are all lively translations from the German, by George P. Upton; the last two being from the text of Ferdinand Schmidt. They are tastily printed and bound and make excellent mediums for introducing young people to the literature of the Fatherland. (60 cents each.)

Miriam Byrne has written a very clever little book for children in "The Would-Be Witch" (Frederick A. Stokes Company, 50 cents). It is a fairy story brought down to date and shows a good imagination as well as a sort of literary style the fairy story ought to possess. More than that it shows originality and a delicate humor which promises well for her future.

No more delightful way to study history could well be devised than Mrs. Cornelia Baker utilizes in "Young People in Old Places" (Bobbs-Merrill, $1.25), wherein a party of youngsters is personally conducted by wise elders across the Atlantic to Great Britain, thence to Paris, and on through Spain to Morocco. They fairly absorb knowledge from their environment as they go, facts of history made real by surroundings they share with the living actors in old scenes, details of national life and customs and language in the several foreign lands they visit, and comparisons with their own dear America, all learned without trouble or tears. To make the book finally desirable, its illustrations are from drawings in ink and pencil by Franklin Booth, the too customary reproduced photograph being unknown to the pleasant volume.

Out of this same abundance of historical knowledge Mrs. Baker has written also a historical romance for children and called it "The Court Jester" (Bobbs-Merrill, $1.25). The jester is sent as a gift to Anne of Brittany, and meets with adventures on the road and after he reaches his destination. A small girl of princely family is also involved in the story, which is one of unusual worth, replete with authentic pictures of the times, and historically accurate. The book has also the advantage of being well illustrated.

Holman F. Day has given the boys a capital story in "The Rainy Day Railroad War" (A. S. Barnes & Co., $1.00). It appeared originally in *The Youth's Companion*, and that in itself is a certificate of value. It is a story of a young engineer who had many adventures in the laying of a railroad in the Maine woods, and is the sort of volume you can let your boys read without fear or trembling.

"The Golden Goblin; or, The Flying Dutchman, Jr.," (Bobbs-Merrill, $1.25) is the patient work of Curtis Dunham, who wrote, and George F. Kerr, who pictured, the "pleasant fantasy for children based on the most fascinating of all undying legends," as the title-page declares. A little boy, Jan, and a little girl, Gurtruida, are shipwrecked in the most delectable of fashions, having sailed into the Indian Ocean on the Dutch barque, Wilhelmina. They are picked up by the spectral ship, and learn that Captain Vanderdecken has been superseded by one Black Patch, because he has failed for two hundred and fifty years to make Holland as he promised. Thereafter, what happens, happens, and it is admirably told, both with pen and brush, a jolly or tender lyric being thrown into nearly every chapter for good measure.

George Cary Eggleston has done something well worth doing in his latest book for boys, "Jack Shelby" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., $1.50). He has written of his own boyhood and that of his gifted and lamented brother in the form of fiction, leaving a human document which has the full impress of reality. The story is of Indiana in its earlier days, and the spirit of adventure and even of lawlessness runs through the pages. Yet it is a pity that the real excitement of the book should have to depend, as it does, upon the running down and capture of a gang of thieves.

In "The Wonder Children" (Macmillan, $1.50) Charles J. Bellamy has gathered a number of modern fairy tales, almost every one of them with a suggestion of Christmas and good will in it. There are nine of these, dealing with small boys and girls, rich and poor, filled with true Christian spirit and certain to set the feet of the little ones in a path of charity toward the world at large. "The Story of the Boy Who Teased" is one of the best, though it has less to do with the holidays than its fellows. But it has a moral for a thoughtless attitude which too many children are even encouraged to take. The illustrations are good.

The seventh volume of the "Randy" books, all by Miss Amy Brooks, is called "Randy's Loyalty" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard, $1), and deals with the unselfish devotion to her family and her friends, more particularly to her little sister, which those who have known Miranda Weston for many years have grown to expect. The book has in it the shrewdness of New England, and a spirit of self-sacrifice worthy of the Puritans at their best. From the same pen and publishers comes the fifth volume of the "Dorothy Dainty" series, entitled "Dorothy Dainty in the City" ($1). It tells of the removal of the family from its comfortable home in the country to a great metropolis for the winter, and of the difficulties all have in shielding the little heroine from the designs of a scheming uncle, she herself being not the least brave and resourceful of them all.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Administration. — November 26. — President Roosevelt returned from his trip to Panama and Porto Rico.

—December 3.—The President sent to the Senate nominations for cabinet officers and an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court [named on page 1335, December, 1906]. Several other officials also nominated.

—December 10.—John W. Riddle, minister to Roumania and Servia, to succeed George von L. Meyer as ambassador to Russia.

Army.—November 19.—The War Department suspended execution of the order discharging three companies of negro troops for taking part in a shooting affray at Brownsville, Texas.

Casualties.—November 15.—Several lives lost, the town of Catlin swept away and a property loss of $1,000,000 by a flood in the state of Washington and northern Oregon. Railroad communication between Puget Sound and Portland cut off.

—November 19.—Forty-six persons drowned as the result of a collision between two steamers on the sound near Seattle.

—November 21.—Thirty-two lost their lives in consequence of a fierce storm on the Great Lakes.

—November 29.—Samuel Spencer, president of the Southern Railway system, Philip Schuyler, Charles D. Fisher and Francis T. Redwood, capitalists, were instantly killed, with three other men, in a railroad collision at Lawyers, near Lynchburg, Virginia.

—December 4.—By the breaking of the Detroit dam, fourteen lives lost at Clifton, Arizona.

Congress.—December 3.—The Fifty-ninth Congress reassembled. Senators Penrose and Foraker requested information from the President and the Secretary of War as to the recent discharge of three companies of negro soldiers.

—December 4.—The President's message presented to Congress.

—December 5.—The House passed the bill permitting national banking associations to make loans on real estate as security and limiting the amount of such loans.

—December 6.—Resolutions adopted by the Senate calling on the President and the Secretary of War for information as to discharge of negro soldiers. The Senate confirmed the appointment of Herbert G. Squiers to be minister to Panama.

Constitution.— December 5.— The committee on resolutions of the United States Senatorial Conference, convening in Des Moines, Iowa, adopted a resolution urging the thirty-seven state legislatures which meet this winter to demand that Congress call a constitutional convention to amend the Constitution so as to put election of United States Senators in the hands of the people.

Crime.—December 3.—The United States Supreme Court denied a writ of habeas corpus to Charles H. Moyer, William D. Haywood and George A. Pettibone, officers of the Western Federation of Miners held in Idaho prison on a charge of complicity in the murder of ex-Governor Steunenberg.

ANOTHER EARTHQUAKE
Macauley, in the New York *World*.

Deaths.—November 14.—Mrs. Margaret Bottome, founder and president of the International Order of King's Daughters, aged seventy-nine.

—November 29.—Elisha Dyer, mayor of Providence and ex-governor of Rhode Island, aged sixty-seven....W. P. Kane, president of Wabash College.

—November 30.—Otto Young, merchant and financier, aged sixty-two.

—December 6.—George W. Hendee, former governor of Vermont, aged seventy-four.... Peter Asserson, rear-admiral U. S. N., retired, aged sixty-six.

Divorce.—November 13.—The national congress on uniform divorce laws met in Philadelphia.

—November 14.—The uniform divorce law adopted by the congress, which it is hoped every state will adopt.

James Wilson.—November 22.—The body of James Wilson, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence and one of the First Associate Justices of the United States Supreme Court, buried in the cemetery of Christ Church, Philadelphia, having been removed from a grave in North Carolina.

Labor. — November 19. — The Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company decided to increase the wages of its 7,500 motormen and conductors five per cent after December 1....The cotton manufacturers of Fall River, Massachusetts, granted

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an advance of five per cent in wages of operatives.

—November 21.—The American Federation of Labor ordered the amalgamation of the carpenters' and woodworkers' unions before November 1, 1908, in order to avoid constant war over jurisdictional questions.

—November 22.—All trainmen and yardmen of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railway granted an increase in wages of four cents an hour from November 1, 1906.

—November 27.—The Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe, the Wabash, the Chicago, Peoria & St. Louis and the Baltimore & Ohio Southwestern railroads granted an increase of pay to employees. ....Locomotive engineers refused higher wages, an eight-hour day and modified physical tests, by the railroads centering in Chicago....The Hamilton Cotton Mills, at Amesbury, Massachusetts, increase wages of operatives ten per cent.

Mormons.—November 23.—Joseph F. Smith, president of the Mormon Church, pleaded guilty to a charge of unlawful cohabitation and was fined $300. The charge was based on the birth of President Smith's forty-third child, born to his fifth wife.

Land Frauds.—December 4.—Herbert J. Hagerman, governor of New Mexico, charged with land frauds.

—December 7.—The federal grand jury at Salt Lake City returned indictments against the Union Pacific Railroad Company, the Oregon Short Line and its superintendent, E. Buckingham, Union Pacific Coal Company and J. M. Moore, its local agent at Salt Lake City, for conspiracy in restraint of trade....The federal grand jury at Salt Lake City returned indictments against the Utah Fuel Company—a constituent company of the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad Company—and eight men connected with said company.

Panama Canal Zone.—November 19.—President Roosevelt signed an order placing Chairman Shonts of the Canal Commission in supreme control of the zone, thus abolishing the office of governor.

Municipal. — November 15. — Mayor Schmitz and "Boss" Abe Ruef, of San Francisco, indicted by the grand jury for extorting money from the French restaurant proprietors. Warrants issued for the arrest of both men.

—November 16.—A permanent injunction issued prohibiting Ruef from acting as district attorney.

—November 21.—Suits filed by Attorney-General Coleman to oust A. B. Kirkwood, mayor of Pittsburg, Kansas; F. W. O'Donnell, mayor of Junction City, Kansas, for failure to enforce the state prohibition law and to prohibit those cities from collecting licenses from "joints."

—November 28.—Mayor Schmitz arrested on his arrival in California from Europe.

—November 30.—The grand jury at San Francisco returned indictments against Chief of Police Jerome F. Dinan for perjury, also against Abe Ruef and Dinan for conspiracy.

—December 3.—Mayor Schmitz and Abe Ruef arraigned in court on a charge of extortion.

Nobel Peace Prize.—December 10.—Awarded to President Roosevelt for services in ending the Russo-Japanese war. The money will be used as a fund for the promotion of industrial peace.

Railroads. — November 15. — The New York Central Railroad convicted a second time of giving rebates to the American Sugar Refining Company in the United States Circuit Court of New York.

— November 21. — The Interstate Commerce Commission began an investigation of the relations between the Great Northern, the Northern Pacific and the Burlington railroad systems.

—November 22.—Judge Holt fined the New York Central Railroad $18,000 for giving $26,000 in rebates to the sugar trust. [See under "Rebates."]

Rebates.—November 20.—The federal grand jury in New York found the American Sugar Refining Company guilty of receiving about $26,000 in rebates, in defiance of the Elkins Act. [See under "Railroads."]

Religion. — November 19. — The ecclesiastical court of review sustained the judgment of the lower court, suspending Rev. Algernon S. Crapsey, rector of St. Andrew's Episcopal church, Rochester, New York, for heretical teachings.

—November 25.—Rev. Algernon S. Crapsey renounced his ministry in the Protestant Episcopal Church.

Trusts.—November 15.—Petition filed by order of Attorney-General Moody in United States Circuit Court at St. Louis, asking for dissolution of the Standard Oil trust and perpetual injunction restraining seventy constituent companies from working with or paying dividends to parent company.

—November 19.—H. P. McIntosh, a director of the Standard Oil Company of Cleveland, indicted last week, was arrested and later released on bail. M. J. Vilas and J. M. Robertson, treasurer and secretary, also indicted, signed bonds for their appearance on December 6.

—November 21.—H. Clay Pierce, president of the Waters-Pierce Oil Company, indicted by the grand jury at Austin, Texas, for swearing in 1900 that the Standard Oil Company did not own or control any stock in his company.

—November 22.—A writ of alternative mandamus granted against the Buckeye Pipe Line Company in Ohio to compel the company to transport oil through its pipe lines without discrimination.

—November 28.—The federal grand jury at St. Louis returned indictments charging the Waters-Pierce Oil Company with violation of the interstate commerce law and the Elkins Act.

—November 30.—Senator Bailey, of Texas, charged by Attorney-General R. V. Davidson in an open letter with receiving money to protect the Waters-Pierce Company.

—December 5.—John D. Rockefeller, Henry H. Rogers, William Rockefeller, John D. Archbold and others personally served with subpœnas to appear and testify in the federal government's suit to dissolve the Standard Oil Company.

Salton Sea.—December 10.—By the breaking of a $1,000,000 dike just completed by the Southern Pacific Railroad Company, the Colorado River filled the Salton Sea and flooded the Imperial Valley.

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THE ALL-AMERICAN TEAM
Coach Root has it in condition for the game of its life
Bartholomew, in the Minneapolis *Journal*

Storer Affair.—November 20.—Bellamy Storer publishes pamphlet attacking President Roosevelt for his dismissal as United States ambassador to Austria-Hungary.

—December 9.—President Roosevelt publishes letter to Secretary Root in reply to Mr. Storer.

Trans-Mississippi.— November 23.— The Trans-Mississippi Commercial Congress, in session at Kansas City, Missouri, urged a reorganization of the consular service, and the creation of an American merchant marine.

Waterways.— November 15.— The Lakes-to-the-Gulf Deep Waterways Association organized at the Waterways Convention at St. Louis.

—November 23.—The Trans-Mississippi Commercial Congress adopted a resolution urging Congress to devote $50,000,000 annually to improvement of rivers, and favored a ship canal to connect the great lakes with the Gulf; also the proposed intercoastal canal from the Mississippi River to the Rio Grande.

Cuba

Immigration.— November 13.— The Cuban Congress appropriated $1,000,000 to encourage immigration. Economic bodies endorsed the action.

Congress.— December 2.— Governor Magoon informed congressmen that all seats of members elected December 1, 1905, would be declared vacant from October 12, 1906.

Brazil

President.— November 15.— Alfonso Agusto Moreira Penna inaugurated sixth president of Brazil.

British Empire

Education Bill.— November 22.— The House of Lords struck out the clause empowering the establishment of a central educational council for Wales, by a vote of 109 to forty-four. The Education Bill then passed through its committee stage. Over one hundred Nonconformist members of Parliament signed a memorial asking the government to reject promptly all the amendments of the upper house.

—December 6.— The bill passed its third reading in the House of Lords by a vote of 105 to twenty-eight.

Journalism.—December 5.—The London *Times*, which for a century has been under private ownership, will be "modernized" and placed in control of a stock company.

Soap Trust.— November 23.— The soap trust, formed October 5 with a capital of $60,000,000, announced that "the working arrangement entered into between leading soapmakers of the United Kingdom having been received with such disfavor by trade and public as to make it unworkable, it has been decided to terminate the arrangement from November 23. Each firm will henceforth conduct its own business entirely separately."

France

Separation Church and State.— November 20. —Opposition to inventory-taking in the churches in several places. Soldiers driven out by sulphur fumes.

—November 21.— Nine hundred more church inventories taken, but without serious opposition.

— December 9. — The Pope issued orders to French Catholics not to comply with the requirements of the public meeting law of 1881.

—December 11.—Mgr. Montagnini, secretary at the papal nunciature in Paris, expelled from France because of complicity with priests to incite churchgoers to rebellion.

Deaths. — December 7. — Dr. Luigi Lapponi, physician and medical attendant of the Pope.

—December 9.—Ferdinand Brunetiere, academician and writer, aged fifty-seven.

Spain

Vatican.— November 14.— In the Chamber of Deputies in the debate on the law of associations, Count Romanones, Minister of Justice, said the papal nuncio at Madrid had formally demanded the prosecution of all municipal judges who celebrated civil marriages, but the demand had been flatly refused.

—December 4.—Anti-clerical manifestations continued in Madrid. Many persons injured, as the police were compelled to charge the crowds.

Cabinet.— November 28.— The members of the Dominguez cabinet resigned because of differences of opinion on the religious question.

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Moret y Prendergast invited to form a new ministry.

—November 29.— New cabinet appointments accepted by the king. A minister of worship and education was not selected.

— November 30.— Minister of Justice Romanones refused to remain in the reorganized cabinet.

— December 3.— The Moret cabinet resigned. The king called on General Rios, who resigned the premiership in 1905, to form a new cabinet, but he declined because of the divergencies of opinion in the Liberal party.

— December 4.— The king approved of a new ministry, of which the Marquis de Armijo is premier, and General Weyler resumes his old post of minister of war.

Portugal

Boundaries.— December 2.— The 266th anniversary of the independence of Portugal was celebrated by the signature of a treaty with Spain delimiting the frontiers of both kingdoms.

Riot.— December 2.— Serious rioting in Oporto arising from meeting called to protest against the expulsion of Republican members of Parliament, who made a bitter attack on the king in the chamber.

German Empire

Casualty.—November 22:—The German liner Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse and the British royal mail steamer Orinoco collided in the English channel, and eleven persons lost their lives.

— November 29.— Several hundred persons injured and forty killed by explosion at a "roburit" factory at Armen. Thirty-eight of the wounded can not recover. The town is a mass of ruins. Estimated damage $500,000.

Chinese.— December 6.— The agricultural chamber of West Prussia adopted a resolution empowering its executive committee to prepare to import Chinese as farm laborers in order to relieve the present scarcity of such labor.

Poland.— November 22.— Henryk Sienkiewicz, the Polish novelist, published an open letter to the Emperor in British and French newspapers, arraigning the treatment of Polish children by Prussia.

Russian Empire

Agrarian Relief.— November 25.— A ukase issued by the Czar, which permits the peasant to surrender his share of communal ownership of village land and become an individual freeholder.

— November 28.— Revelations in St. Petersburg of gross irregularities in the disbursement of famine relief funds voted by parliament.

— November 30.— The Emperor signed a law permitting peasants to mortgage their lands for money to make improvements, purchase implements, or buy more land.

Douma.— November 16.— The first election of members of the douma, representing St. Petersburg, gave a majority of parties belonging to the right.

— November 27.— Fearing that the lower house of the next douma will be more radical than the first, the corps of nobility began a campaign to induce the government to make immediate changes in the election laws.

— December 4.— Resolutions adopted by the central committee of the peaceful regenerationist party, accusing the government of unconstitutional and illegal actions in restraining the political rights of citizens and depriving large masses of the population of their votes by means of senate orders.

Education.— November 15.— General Rudiger issued an order closing the military academy of medicine at St. Petersburg, on account of the revolutionary agitation within it.

— December 6.— The University of Warsaw, it is officially announced, will be removed to Saratov, and the Warsaw Polytechnic School to Rostov-on-Don, leaving Russian Poland without a single university.

Famine.— November 28.— The conditions in the Volga governments reached an acute stage. Thousands starving, while inadequate transportation prevented an abundance of grain in near-by districts being used for relief.

Labor.— November 30.— A law promulgated providing a ten-hour day for clerks in stores and offices, and a fifteen-hour day in restaurants, saloons, etc. It also provided for closing on Sundays and holidays.

Navy.— December 5.— A naval court-martial began the trial of former Admiral Nebogatoff and seventy-eight officers of the squadron who surrendered to the Japanese.

Reaction.— November 13.— A primitive expedition in the Kreutzberg district, Courland, killed ninety peasants belonging to a revolutionary organization called Forest Brothers, who levied tribute on the surrounding country. . . . Mlle. Benevsky, daughter of the ex-governor-general of Amur province, condemned to ten years' imprisonment with hard labor for participation in the plot to kill Ex-Governor-General Dubassoff.

—November 14.— Two men and a girl sentenced to death for throwing a bomb in a café, injuring two persons. Two other men given seventeen years' penal servitude.

Japan

Navy.— November 15.— The battleship Satsuma, the largest of her class in the world and the first to be wholly constructed in Japan, launched in the presence of the Emperor.

Morocco

Disorder.— November 21.— The continuance of disorder induced Spain and France to combine to enforce the Algeciras agreement. Spain despatched to Tangier three warships carrying five hundred troops. France also sent warships.

— November 26.— The American minister, left Fez for Tangier.

— December 4.— The Moroccan minister of war marching toward Tangier with one thousand five hundred men, to restore order there. This in conformity with the wishes of the diplomatic representatives. The members of the diplomatic corps sent a collective note to the Moroccan minister of foreign affairs calling attention of the government to the existing state of anarchy.

— December 6.— Great Britain signified her approval of the joint demonstrations made by France and Spain at Tangier, and her purpose not to interfere.

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FEBRUARY 15 CENTS

THE WORLD TO-DAY

THE WORLD TO-DAY COMPANY · CHICAGO

EASTERN OFFICE, 156 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK

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Blessings never come singly they come in

Pears'

Purity and Economy

OF ALL SCENTED SOAPS PEARS' OTTO OF ROSE IS THE BEST.

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SPIRIT OF THE MONTH

SUSPENSE

France awaits the outcome of the struggle between the Pope and the Republic

The Northwest starves and investigates while hoping for freight cars

Civilization watches Leopold manipulate the Congo

Great Britain tries to forecast a future for the House of Lords

A Japanized China astounds such people of the West as try to prophesy

Congress wonders what the President will advise in his next message

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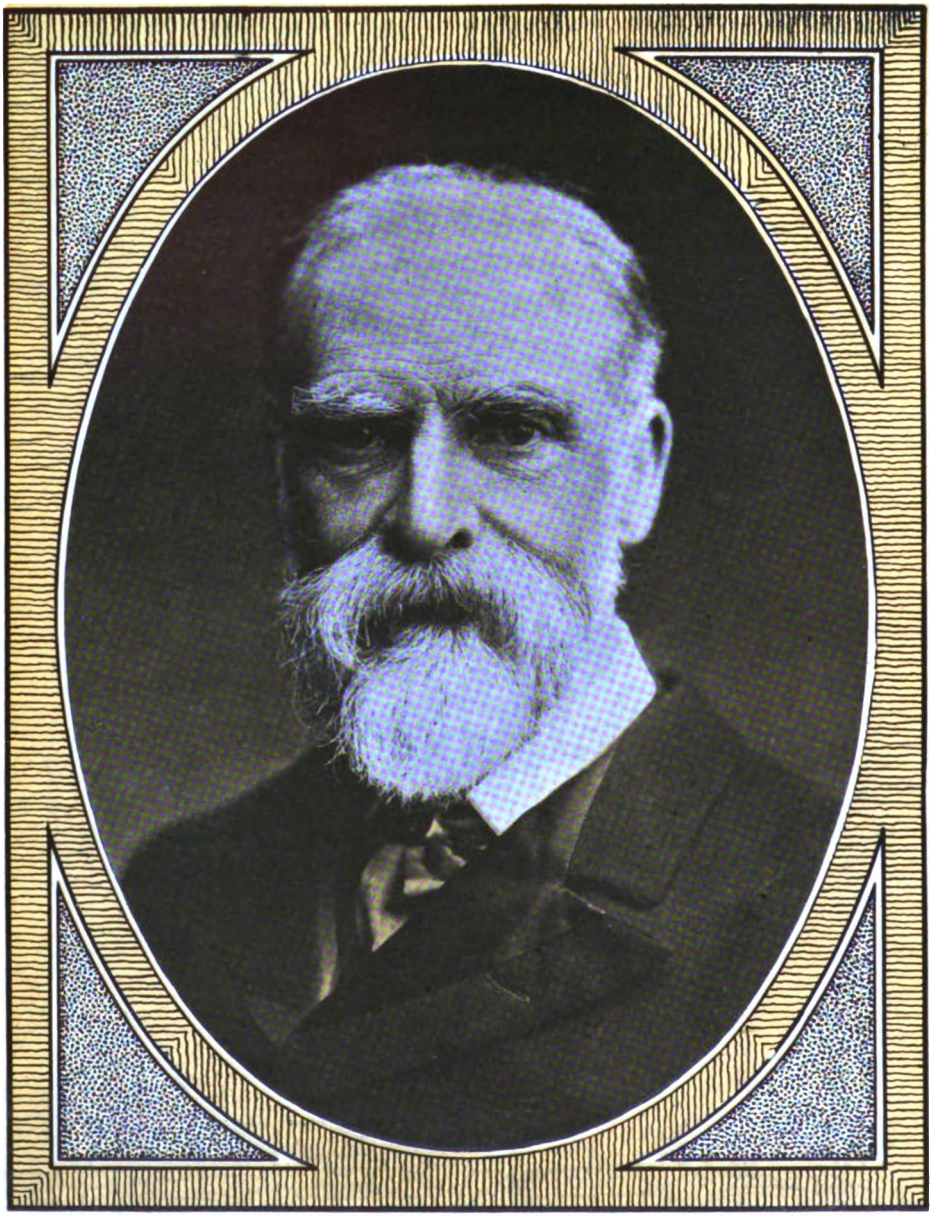

JAMES BRYCE — THE BRITISH AMBASSADOR TO THE UNITED STATES

Mr. Bryce is preëminently the scholar in politics. He made his early reputation by his volume, "The Holy Roman Empire." His most important work is "The American Commonwealth." He has been a member of Parliament for a number of years, and recently Secretary for Ireland

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The World To-Day

VOLUME XII FEBRUARY, 1907 NUMBER 2

The Portent of the Far East

YOUR genuine Anglo-Saxon has a contempt for dark-skinned races. Where this contempt originated does not signify. It may date from the time that the Germans defeated the Roman legions. It may spring from the century-long wars which England waged with France and Spain. At all events it survives, a menace to national sanity and a guarantee of national loss.

Nowadays this contempt singles out the yellow-skinned Asiatic. It is true Japan somewhat jarred it by defeating Russia, but your average American believes that Russia was defeated as much by its own stupidity as by Japanese prowess.

And as for China, there is not one American in a hundred thousand who can think of the Chinese as other than curiosities or laundrymen.

* * *

This contempt for the Asiatic will turn to respect if not to fear.

A new Asia is being born.

Even the Indian subjects of the British Empire are demanding some sort of self rule. Japan, if once it can get its finances on a war footing, will be a nation any power wishing to share in oriental commerce must either beat or obey.

* * *

But ten years hence, whatever danger we may to-day find in New

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Japan will seem infinitesimal when compared with danger we shall see in New China.

There are more people in China than there are in Japan, the United States, the German Empire, France, Spain, Great Britain and the entire Russian Empire combined. And they are people of ability.

What will happen when these hundreds of millions come under the control of western civilization? Will the China of 1917 submit to the treatment which it has meekly endured from Great Britain, France and Russia?

* * *

We have been accustomed to think of the Far East as a sort of sponge which can absorb our surplus products. But what if the Far East itself becomes industrial?

We have been accustomed to think of China as wedded to a past that was old when western civilization was born. But henceforth the Chinese, like the Japanese, will take the cream off western civilization. With none of those age-long enmities which have resulted from the development of our elaborate industrial world, they can use as well as we every sort of machine and process and agency we have invented.

Call them imitators if you will. When a half-billion people pass into the industrial stage the center of gravity in history is going to shift.

* * *

There is a hundred times more kinship between America and Europe than between America and Asia. We can trust the course of events in European diplomacy. We all play the game according to the same rules. What rules will the East observe?

As long as the East was afraid of the West diplomacy was easy. That day has passed. Japan is teaching China to despise Europeans and Americans. It is only a matter of time before China shall have become a vaster Japan, and America shall find itself between the Scylla of Europe and the Charybdis of Asia.

When that inevitable day comes we shall be thanking our lucky stars that some men and women were far-sighted enough to send school teachers and foreign missionaries to China along with drill sergeants and civil engineers.

* * *

In one word: America must abandon its dilettante policy in dealing with the Far East and set its affairs in order for an irrepressible conflict in commerce if not for war.

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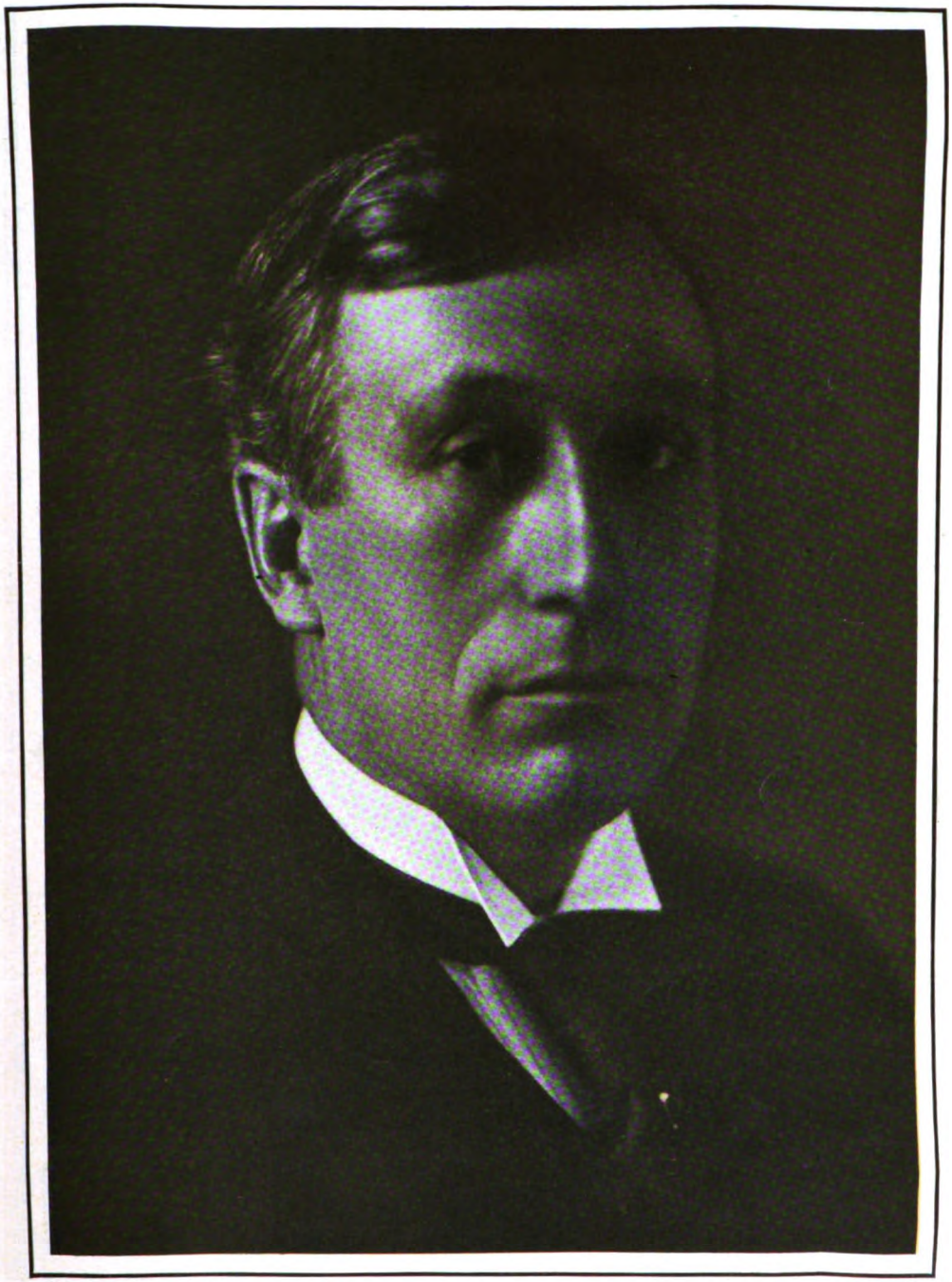

Photograph by Dana Hull.

DAVID R. FORGAN — FINANCIER

Mr. Forgan has been for several years Vice-President of the First National Bank, Chicago. He is to be President of a great bank now being organized. But he is more than a mere financier. He is First Vice-President of the Deep Waterways Association, and is widely interested in philanthropic and religious work

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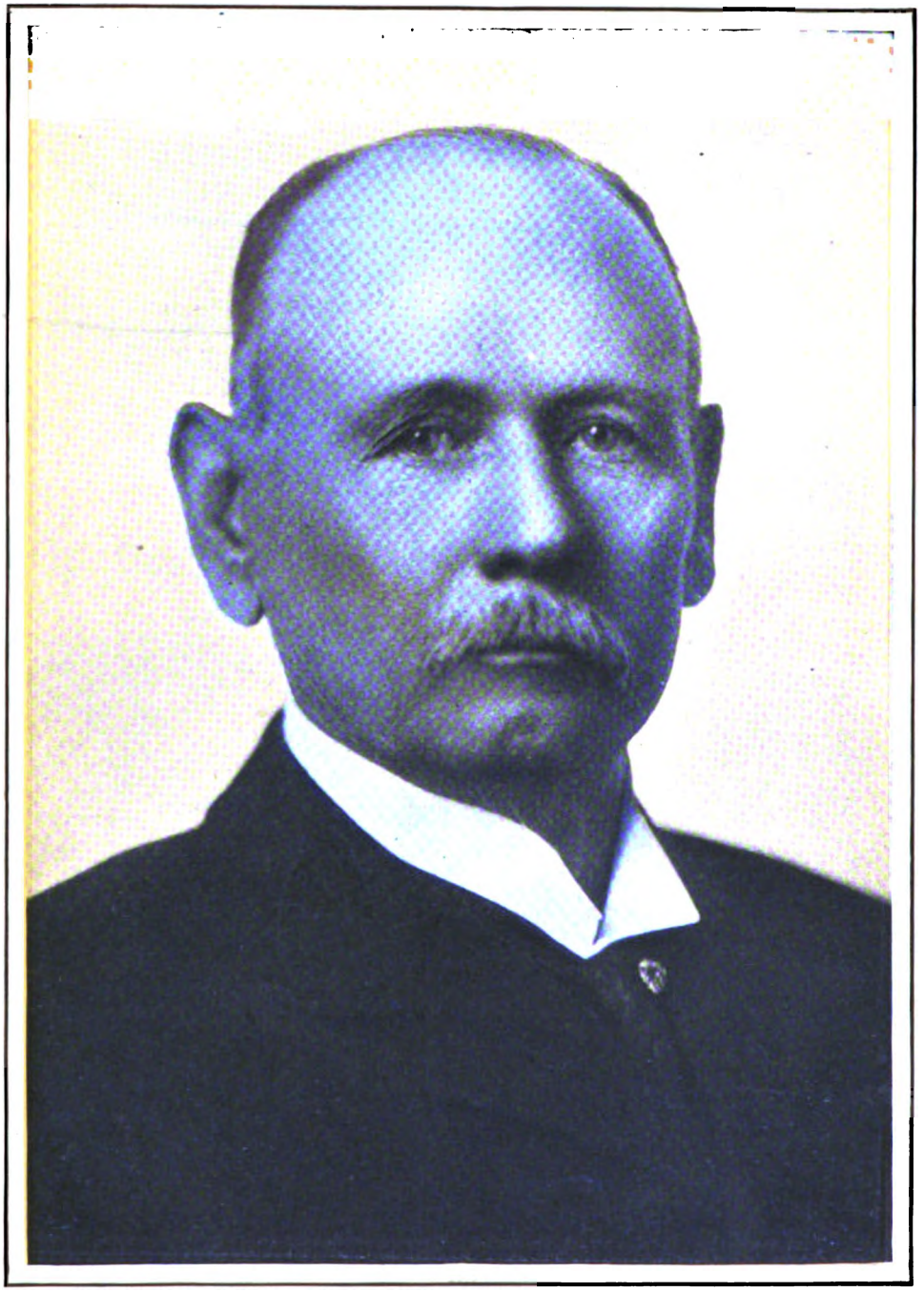

Photograph by Matzene

JAMES T. HARAHAN — RAILROAD PRESIDENT

Who has been made by Mr. Harriman President of the Illinois Central Railroad in place of Stuyvesant Fish. Mr. Harahan's career is an example of the opportunity offered by railroads for poor young men of ability

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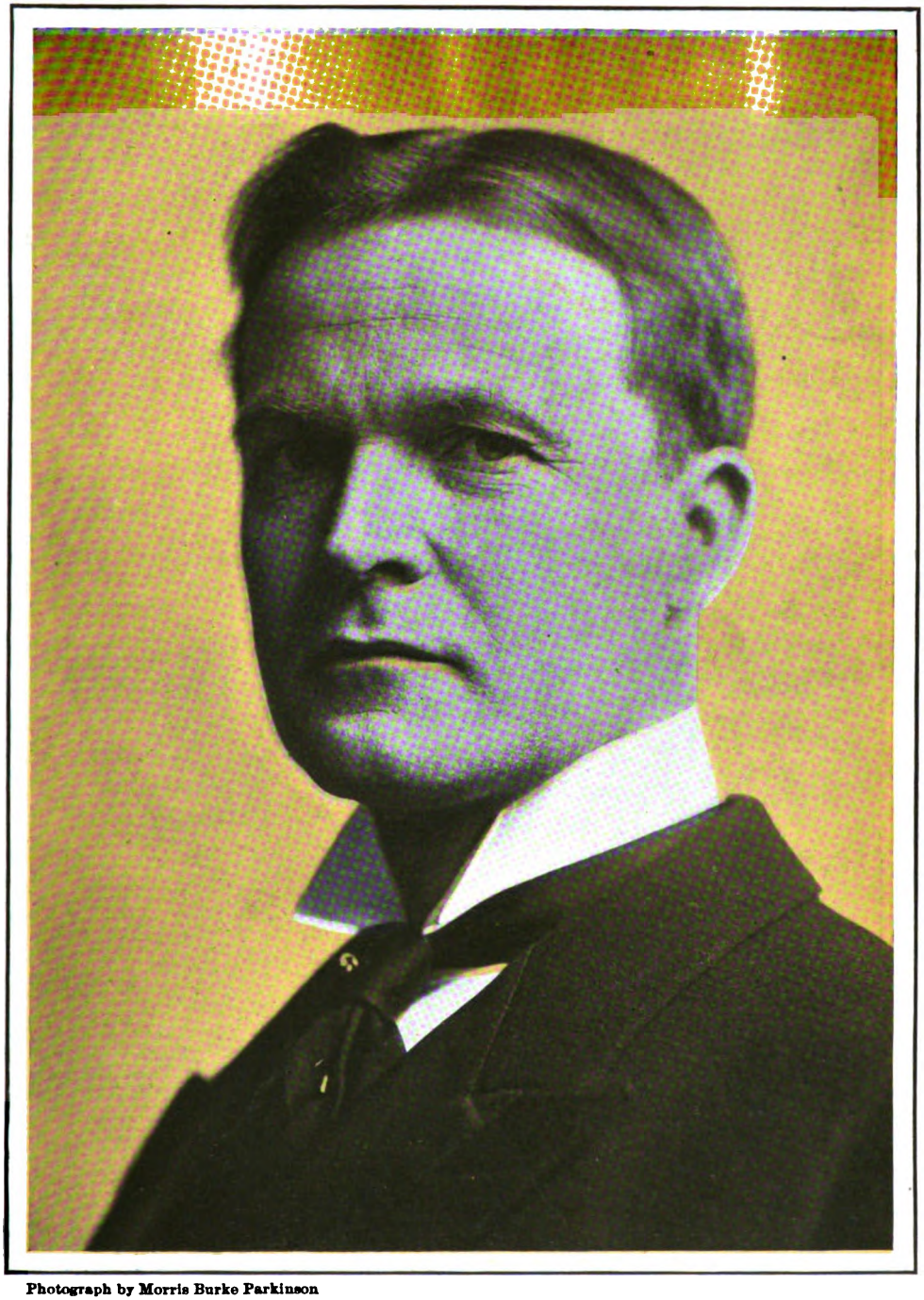

Photograph by Morris Burke Parkinson

HERBERT S. JOHNSON — CHAMPION OF THE CONGO

To Mr. Johnson is due in no small degree the active interest of the United States in the reform of the Congo Free State. He is a Boston clergyman who took up the agitation at his own expense, both of time and money

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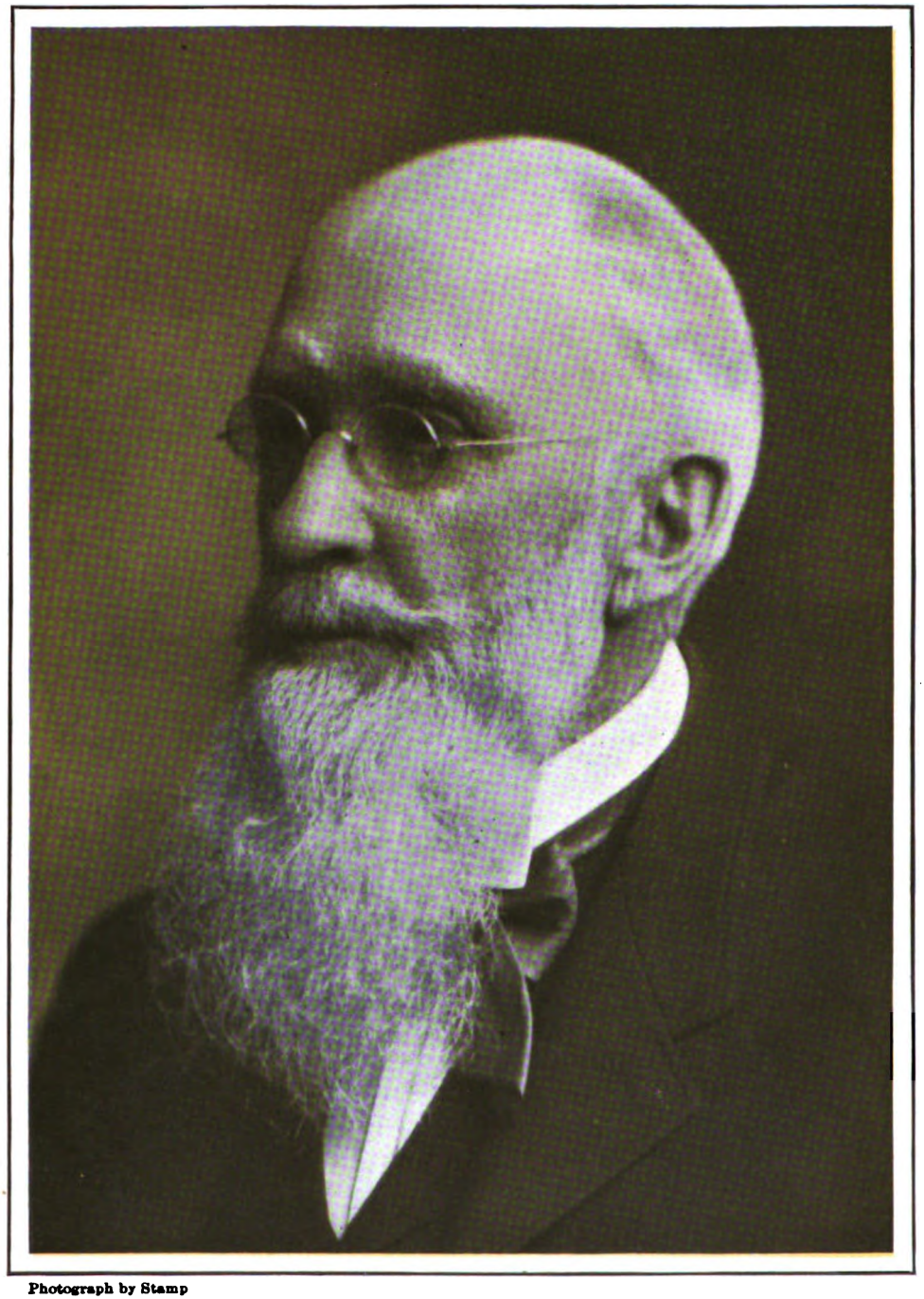

Photograph by Stamp

ZEBULON R. BROCKWAY — CRIMINOLOGIST

Mr. Brockway is the Nestor of the new Criminology. For more than a quarter of a century he was superintendent of the New York Elmira Reformatory. Under him the institution became a model for the entire country

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Foreign Affairs

Anti-clericalism in Europe

The anti-clerical movement in Europe is one of the most striking phenomena of the day. In England we have the struggle with the House of Lords as representative of the established church in their attitude toward education. In Spain there is the struggle of the kaleidoscopic cabinet with the Vatican. France is torn asunder in the separation of Church and State. In Germany the government has gone to the people in a new election ~~for~~ the Reichstag with an appeal to the liberals to defeat the Centrists or church party and the Socialists. Just what all these agitations will amount to, it is hard to forecast. It all looks toward the dissolution of the temporal power of the Pope and to the placing of religion in politics where it stands in the United States. To most of us this will seem a decided advantage, both for the State and for the Church.

The United States and the Congo

The United States Government has formally put itself on record as in favor of an international convention of the great powers of the world to bring about reform in the Congo Free State. On December 6, Secretary Root definitely promised members of the Congo Reform Association that he would do his utmost to bring about reform. He recognized that our government has a right to cooperate in such a movement under the act of the Convention of Brussels, which pledges this nation to an interest in the preservation of the Congolese people from slavery. Immediately after the Secretary had made this promise, Senator Lodge of Massachusetts drew up a resolution which is understood to represent the Secretary's wishes. This resolution was introduced into the Senate on December 10, where it was immediately referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations. It reads as follows:

WHEREAS, The reports of the inhuman treatment inflicted upon the native inhabitants of the Congo Free State have been of such a nature and so well sustained as to draw the attention of the civilized world and excite both the indignation and the compassion of the people of the United States, therefore be it

***Resolved,* That in the opinion of the Senate of the United States the time has come when the affairs of the Congo Free State should be made the subject of international inquiry, and the Senate respectfully advises the President that in any steps he may deem it wise to take in coöperation with or in aid of any of the powers signatory to the treaty of Berlin, which shall seek to ameliorate the conditions of the Congo Free State and redress any evils now existent there, he will receive its cordial support.**

Leopold would Annex the Congo to Belgium

Whether the Senate finally passes the Lodge resolution or not, action of this government and of the other great powers is likely to be affected by the proposed annexation of the Congo Free State by Belgium. On

KING LEOPOLD OUT-HERODS HEROD
Morris, in the *Spokesman-Review*, Spokane.

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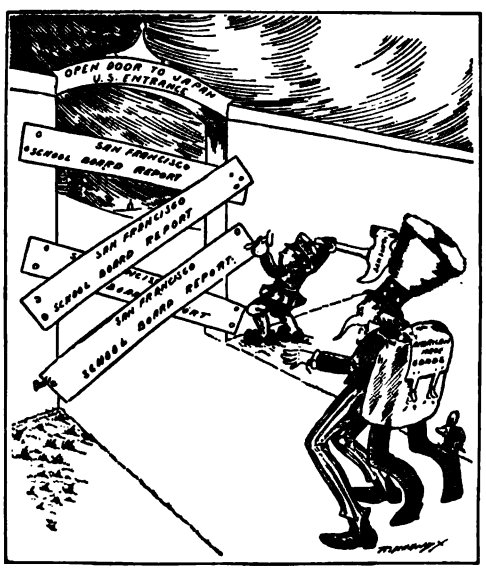
December 14 the Belgian Chamber of Deputies voted tentatively under certain conditions to annex the Congo Free State as a Belgian colony. This action was unquestionably influenced by Secretary Root's stand for the liberties of the Congo people. King Leopold seeks by it to remove the Congo from the realm of international jurisdiction. The powers, through courtesy, would be inclined to defer action proposed till Belgium has received full opportunity to determine the question of her future relation to the Congo Free State. In case of final annexation by Belgium, Leopold plainly hopes thereby to balk all action by the powers. Will this expectation of the King be realized? It ought not to be. The status of the Congo Free State has been heretofore that of an international colony. Leopold has reigned as the steward of the other powers. How does the steward suddenly acquire the right to dispose of the stewardship without authorization of the world powers which constituted him therein?

The Outcome of Annexation

If annexation by Belgium is to be the final disposition of the Congo Free State, humanitarians may well be filled with consternation. For the King permits annexation only under conditions which nullify all hopes of reform. In the first place, the rights of the concessionary companies which already exist are to be recognized in the future. Many of the most terrible conditions now prevailing in the Congo are due to this concessionary system. In the second place the King's own *Domaine de la Couronne* is to be preserved to him and to his heirs inviolate. This private domain is six times as large as Belgium and has been the scene of many of the worst cruelties and abominations. In the third place the revenues of the Congo Free State are not to be reduced. But the revenues can not be maintained at the present rate except by the present system of enforced labor, which has been the cause of all the abuses. The only effect of the annexation for an indefinite period in the future would be to transfer the Congo from Leopold, the sovereign of the Free State, to Leopold, King of Belgium. The cat tosses the mouse from his claws into his jaws!



MAKING USE OF THE BOARDS
Handy, in the Duluth *News-Tribune*

The Roman Church and Congo Reform

There is another influence at Washington which the friends of the Congo will be compelled to consider in the future. The first public intimation of it occurred in a letter written by James Gustavus Whiteley, Consul-General of the Congo Free State, dated December 6, 1906. This letter and a pamphlet were both sent by him to certain senators, and presumably to all, with the intention of preventing action by the Senate in behalf of the liberties of the Congo people. These documents strongly suggested that the present campaign of Congo reform is prompted by religious prejudice. On January 1, 1907, each member of the United States Senate received a circular letter from the "American Federation of Catholic Societies," "representing nearly two million American citizens," requesting him to refrain from any act of intervention in Congo affairs. This same letter closes with this statement: "In the face of these facts, we are of the opinion that the charges against the Congo government are unfounded and inspired by religious and commercial jealousy." Phrases in the second letter which are identical with those in the communications of Mr. Whiteley lead one strongly to the opinion that the authorship of the two letters is identical.

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NEWFOUNDLAND NAVAL RESERVISTS IN LONDON
Great Britain is wise in showing new attention to its western colony. Newfoundland is not content with the status of the fisheries dispute

The Reform Movement Nonsectarian

To the candid observer it must be patent that Congo reform is not in any sense a sectarian movement. It is founded on the report of a Roman Catholic body, King Leopold's own Commission of Inquiry. The commission, according to its own declaration on page 6 of the translation published by Putnam, "received while in Congo the statements of judges, officials, directors, the agents of companies, of missionaries, Protestant and Catholic, and especially of natives." The two strongest books against the King that have made their appearance in the reform campaign were both written by Catholics. The one is Professor Cattier, Professor of History in the University of Brussels, the other is Father Vermeersch, a Belgian and a Jesuit priest. The personnel of the Congo Reform Movement in Belgium is almost wholly constituted of Roman Catholics. In view of these facts it is greatly to be hoped that no attention will be paid the effort to appeal to religious prejudice, and that the case will be settled on its merits. The commercial interests involved are secondary to the humanitarian. Christendom can not longer endure the horrors the King's own Commission of Inquiry describes or implies.

Home Rule in the Transvaal

Since our last record in these pages the promised constitution for the Transvaal has been officially set forth. It provides for a legislative assembly to consist of sixty-nine salaried members, elected for a period of five years. The franchise is given to every male (negroes excluded) of twenty-one years of age, who has resided in the Transvaal for six months and is not an officer or soldier of the British garrison. The basis of representation is according to the number of voters in each district and not according to population. Thus the Rand is entitled to thirty-four representatives, Pretoria six and the rest of the Transvaal to twenty-nine. The assembly is dissolved automatically every five years. A second chamber of fifteen members will be nominated for the first five years by the British government, but the first Transvaal parliament is expected to arrange

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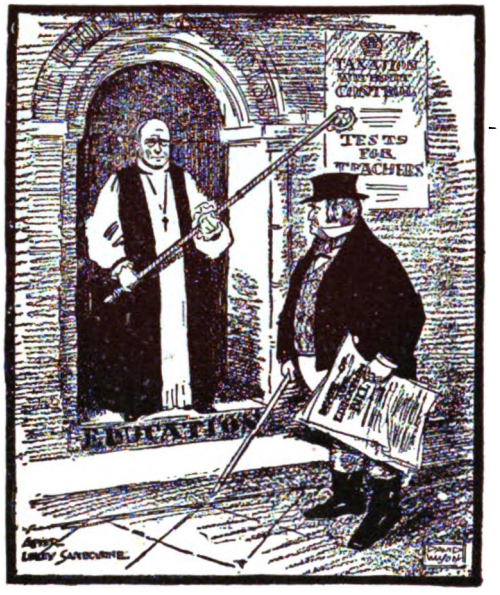

THE TRIUMPH OF DENOMINATIONALISM
From the London *Daily Chronicle*

for its formation by elective process after that period. The request of the Boers for woman suffrage was denied, but concessions have been made on both sides, and the result appears fair and just. Neither British nor Boer can obtain a majority of more than two or three in the chamber. Naturalization is made easy and either the English or the Dutch language may be used for public business. The granting of a constitution to the Transvaal has stirred some feeling in India, and at the Indian National Congress held in December emphatic demands for home rule were voiced by some speakers, and loudly applauded.

Persia's Constitution Established

The making of new constitutions appears to be somewhat epidemic. The latest of which we have word is that of Persia, which was signed by the Shah and the Crown Prince on December 30. Nearly a year ago the Persian monarch agreed to admit his people to a share in the government. Since then the new parliament held its first session, the Shah presiding. The new constitution is the result of its deliberations. Under its provisions all the men between the ages of thirty and seventy, who are not in the service of the state and who have never been convicted of a crime, are entitled to vote for members of the Chamber of Deputies. Property qualifications apparently do not cut any figure in either Persia or the Transvaal. The parliament is to meet annually for the revision of old laws and the enactment of new ones, as may be found necessary. It is to reorganize methods of rule and plan for important reforms in administration which, of course, implies a radical change of government from the absolute despotism of the Shah, to whom alone were responsible the grand vizier and other officials appointed solely by the monarch. And the best of it is that the change has been brought about by a determined demonstration of the will of the people and without any revolution. The Crown Prince signed a separate document, in which he promised not to dissolve the present parliament for two years. A wise provision, considering that the Shah's tenure of life was slight—he died January 8—and the Prince is not believed to be as conciliatory as his father to the new order of things.

Conflict Between the Moorish Sultan and Raisuli

The anarchy and lawlessness which have so ruined Morocco have at length reached the stage when foreign intervention will probably become necessary. The remonstrances made to the Sultan by the foreign diplomatic corps caused that monarch to take action. Raisuli, the bandit chief, who seems to hold the balance of power there, is now in armed conflict with the Sultan's troops. The latter have secured his stronghold, Zinat, not by military prowess, however, but through the agency of fire. Raisuli had previously despatched his prisoners to Arzilla and ordered the gates of that fortress closed against the Sultan's troops. The Algeciras convention arranged by the representatives of the European powers last April was ratified by the French Parliament on December 6, by the German Reichstag on December 10 and by the United States Senate two days later, although there is attached to this ratification the declaration that this country in nowise holds herself thereby

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CARRYING WAR INTO THE AIR
The new French war-balloon "Patrie" recently made a number of successful flights over Paris. What will war become when every nation has its fleet of air-ships?

under obligation to intervene in European affairs.

The Fate of the English Education Bill

The House of Commons, by a most decisive vote—416 to 107—represented the desire of the English people generally in rejecting the amendments made to the Education Bill by the House of Lords. The cabinet also decided to refuse acceptance of them. The prime minister announced the withdrawal of the bill, accompanying the announcement with the significant declaration that it was intolerable that the members of the upper house should so thwart the expressed will of the people. A way would certainly be found of preventing such action being ultimately successful. The House of Lords has created a serious situation for itself, which is likely to end by a curtailment of its powers, sooner or later. It is currently reported that the hand of Mr. Balfour is to be seen in their refusal to make the concessions which the Duke of Devonshire and many other peers recognized and urged as desirable for the

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sake of avoiding an issue between the houses.

Emperor William and the Reichstag

The war in German Southwest Africa, which has lasted for nearly three years, has been a very costly enterprise for the German Empire, and decidedly unpopular. It has finally proved the occasion of a dissolution of the Reichstag, which refused to vote the supplementary appropriation asked for to meet the expenses involved in its conduct. There are about twelve thousand men of the German army in Southwest Africa, and had this appropriation been granted the total cost of the war would have been $176,500,000. Claiming that colonial responsibility and the nation's honor required the continuance of the campaign until success was attained, the government concluded, when refused the credit it asked for, to dissolve the recalcitrant Reichstag by authority of the Emperor and the Bundesrath. This was the first occasion in thirteen years of such action. The constitution obliges the election of a new Reichstag within sixty days. The Kaiser has declared that it will be again dissolved should it continue to oppose its will to his. Fortunately it has later been announced that a peace pact between the German forces and the Hereroes has been signed in Damaraland. The adverse war sentiment in the nation has been intensified by the revelation of inhumanities and corruption in the administration of the colony, and its practical failure as a commercial undertaking.

The Nation

The Constitutionality of the Employers' Liability Law

Two important decisions have recently been made by United States District Judges. The first of these was by Judge Evans of Kentucky in the matter of the national law governing employers' liability. Judge Evans's decision was to the effect that the clause of the Constitution giving Congress the right to control commerce between the states was not intended to cover any such matters as that on which he was passing. The bearing of this decision is not altogether plain, but it is likely to hinder the government prosecution of cases against the railroad under the employers' liability act of the last session of Congress. By that act the federal courts rather than those of separate states were given jurisdiction in cases brought by railroad employees against the companies because of injuries. The present case was judged sufficiently important for a special representative of the government to be sent to Louisville to conduct the trial. Judge Evans refused to admit the right of the government in the litigation and treated the government's attorney simply as a guest.

UTILIZING THE SQUEAL
Music as a coming by-product
Bradley, in The Chicago *Daily News*

Rebuilding the Nation on Interstate Commerce

We have already called attention to the stretching of the constitutional power by much legislation based on the interstate commerce provision. Senator Beveridge even goes so far as to propose the regulation of child labor by preventing the transportation of goods made by children from one state to another! As long as Judge Evans's decision stands, the government can not legislate for purely local conditions within the states on the ground that these conditions are more or less connected with interstate commerce. To the ordinary layman this

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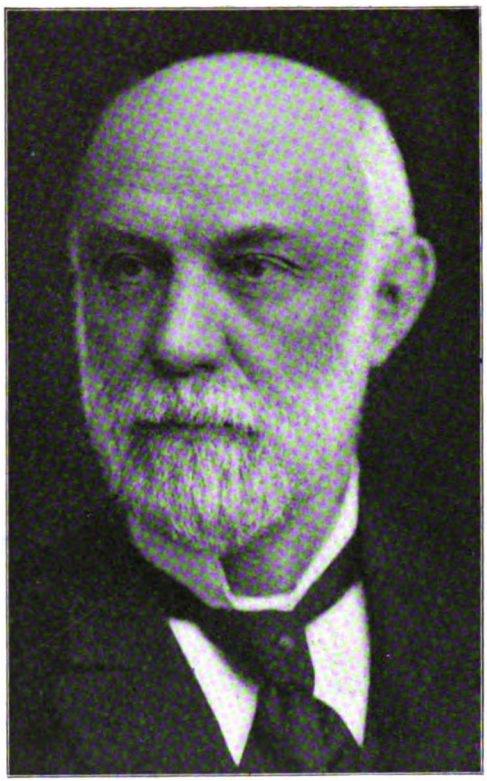
JUDGE K. M. LANDIS OF CHICAGO
Who rendered the decision ruling out the demurrer in the case of the Standard Oil Company



JUDGE WALTER EVANS OF LOUISVILLE
Who declared the Employers' Liability Act unconstitutional

decision looks sensible. At the same time it is greatly to be regretted that the government does not have the right of appeal in cases where decisions are against it. Even more is it a matter of importance that in the rapidly developing nation some ground should be found, besides the power to regulate interstate commerce, upon which to base legislation, in the interests of the nation, regarding matters which were undreamed of when the Constitution was adopted. In this connection no small discussion has been aroused by the speech of Secretary Root in Philadelphia in the middle of December. Mr. Root called attention to the march of events in our political life tending toward the replacement of action by states by action of the federal government. He did not regard this as the outcome of consciously adopted policy on the part of any one, but rather as something fixed by circumstances themselves. This tendency is particularly to be seen in the legislation at the last session of Congress relative to the regulation of pure food, as well as that act which Judge Evans has declared unconstitutional.

Judge Landis, the Government, and the Standard Oil Company

A second decision of importance was by Judge Kenesaw Mountain Landis of the United States District Court in Chicago. It concerns no political principles, but illustrates the difficulty faced by the government in its dealings with corporations. In the prosecution which is now pending against the Standard Oil Company, Mr. John S. Miller demurred to the indictments brought against the company on the ground that the Railway Rate Bill of 1906 repealed the Elkins law, for a breach of which the company was indicted. It will be recalled that at the time this bill was passed by Congress a joint resolution was also passed to the

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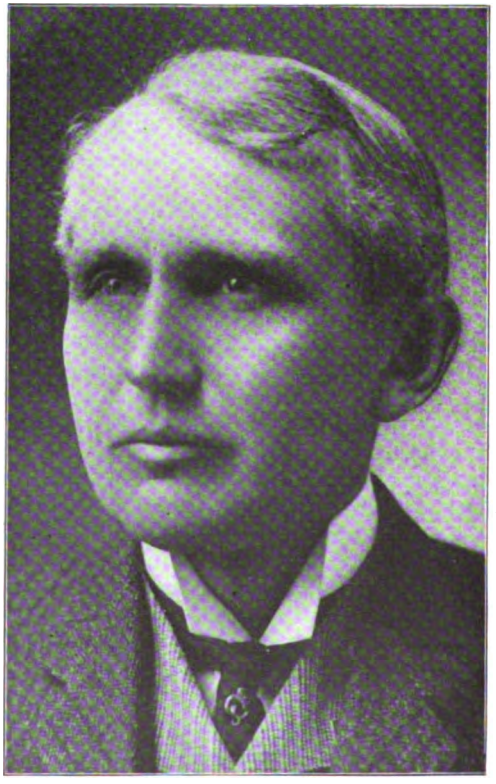
LLOYD GRISCOM
United States Ambassador to Italy

effect that it should not go into operation for sixty days. It was understood that the bill and the joint resolution should be signed by the President at the same time. For some reason the President signed the bill but did not sign the joint resolution until the next day. Mr. Miller claimed that the Elkins law was thereby repealed. Now it has been a principle of common law that no indictment can be found or conviction had under a repealed statute. In 1871, however, Congress passed an exception act for the purpose of obviating the injustice which it was already perceived sprang from such a law. According to this statute of exceptions a crime committed against a repealed statute is always subject to court process unless the repealing statute relieves offenders from prosecution. The Standard Oil Company through its counsel contended in effect, first, that the rate law repealed the Elkins law on the date on which it was signed, and that the joint resolution signed the next day did not affect this situation; second, that the rate bill expressly provided that prosecution should proceed in actions "now pending"; third, that the cases against the Standard Oil Company were not pending at the time the act was signed, but the indictments were found within the sixty days set by the joint resolution. Cases involving similar positions have arisen before in the United States Court and in each case a decision has been given on varying grounds and with dissenting opinions. Judge Landis decided in favor of the government, on the ground that the rebate act was in the nature of an enlargement of the Elkins law, in that it increased the punishment of fine by that of imprisonment. The Standard Oil Company must therefore stand trial on more than six thousand indictments. It was a narrow escape for the President. Further, it would be interesting to know how the words "now pending" as distinct from "now begun," to which Judge Grosscup has given a very generous scope, were added to the rate bill.



FRANK B. KELLOGG OF ST. PAUL
Selected by President Roosevelt to investigate the Harriman railroad system

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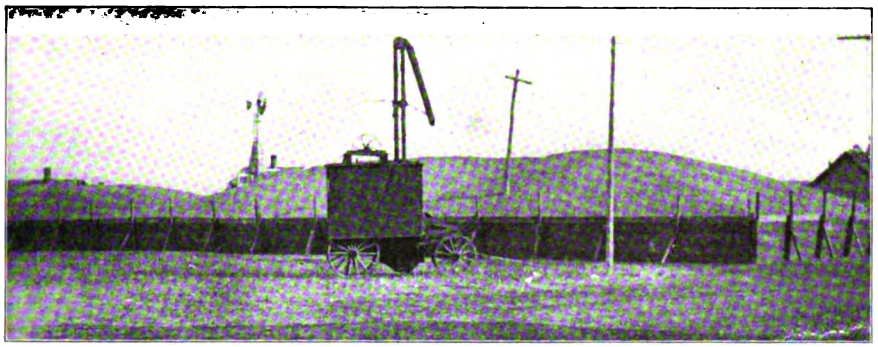


112,000 BUSHELS OF WHEAT AWAITING SHIPMENT
This pile lay in the open at Rockford, North Dakota, November 7, 1906, as all the elevators were full and there were no cars to carry it away

Congress Playing Politics

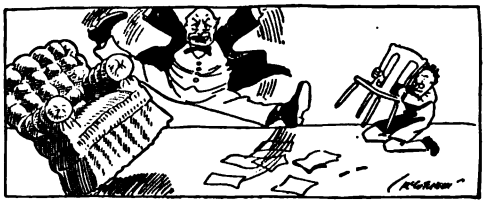
Congress for the past few months has been more concerned in playing politics than anything else. Chief among the political players has been Senator Foraker of Ohio. The real point over which he has come into prominence is the interminable Brownsville case. It will be recalled that the President summarily dismissed two companies of negro regulars because they shielded some of their members who "shot up" the town of Brownsville, Texas. Senator Foraker, who evidently has his eyes on the negro delegations to the next national Republican convention, is assuming to play the champion of the colored people. The President in his message upon the subject has distinctly stated that he was unmoved by race prejudice and that the soldiers were dismissed because of disorder, not because they were negroes.

Militarism and the Jamestown Exposition

A protest of good sense is that which is issued by various members of the Jamestown Exposition Advisory Board against the diversion of that exposition to the service of militarism. There was time for such a protest. The exposition as planned centers about militarism. There is to be the greatest military spectacle the world has ever seen, the greatest naval rendezvous in history, the repetition of famous battles, a war museum, prize drills by the soldiers of all nations, and so on. Any one who has read the announcement of the Jamestown Exposition will recognize the fact that its promoters, not having money enough to build a great exposition, are planning to utilize the military establishments of the world, presumably an inexpensive matter for the exposition managers. It is time to call a halt in this craze for militarism, and it is to be hoped that if the Jamestown Exposition on account of its poverty needs to borrow the armies and navies of the world, it may at least restrain some of its advertising writers.

Reporter—"Senator, you are very much interested in the Brownsville matter, aren't you?"
Senator—"Um—huh!"

"Is it because you love the negro soldiers?"
"Um—huh!"



"Or is it because you love President Roosevelt?"
"*——*—*——***!!!!??!**!"

SENATOR FORAKER AND THE INTERVIEWER
McCutcheon in the Chicago *Tribune*

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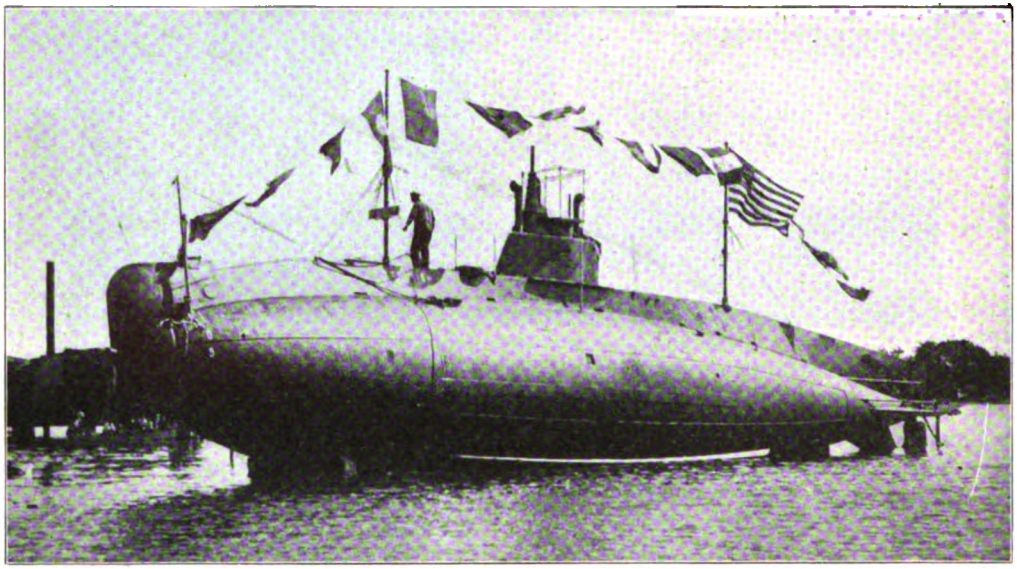
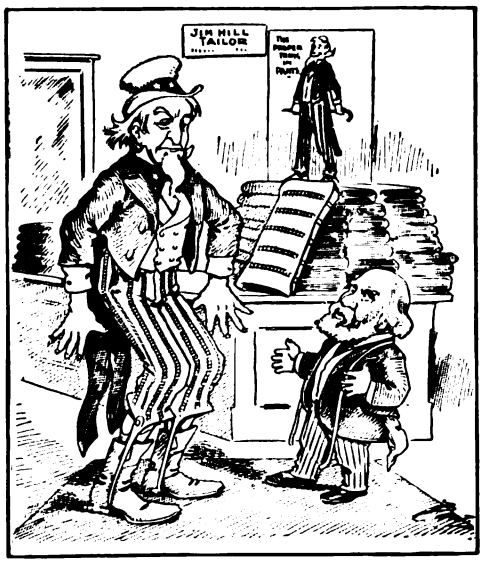


THE "CUTTLEFISH"—THE LATEST TYPE OF SUBMARINE

In rebuilding its navy the United States is not confining its efforts to duplicating the huge battleships of other nations. It is also leading the way in developing the submarine

The Greatest Concrete Bridge

What is known as the Connecticut Avenue Bridge, at Washington, D. C., and which is now nearing completion, is the world's greatest illustration of what may be done in the bridge-building line with this comparatively new building material. This bridge, which is 1,450 feet in length, spans Rock Creek, a picturesque stream flowing through a deep valley to the west of the city, and will undoubtedly be the means of building up a fashionable and exclusive suburb at its western end, as the best residential portion of the city is located near the eastern brink of the little valley. This valley is a Government reservation, and no pains or expense is being spared to make it one of the most beautiful natural parks in the world. In the construction of the bridge it was necessary to use some stone in the foundations of the piers, and this was quarried within five hundred feet of the bridge site. Vast quantities of material have been used, including 34,000 tons of sand and 14,300 tons of cement, as well as some million and a half feet of lumber in the falsework. The total cost of the bridge is to be $850,000, and it is hoped that it will be ready for use by the first of March next. The Connecticut Avenue Bridge is only one of the large number of public works in progress about the National Capital which are intended to combine architectural charm with practical utility, making it, as was the intention of the founders, the most beautiful capital city of the world.



THE SHORTAGE EXPLAINED

Tailor Jim Hill—You've outgrown yer pants

Uncle Sam—Durn it, I know it! Hain't you got some more of the same goods?

Bartholomew, in the Minneapolis *Journal*

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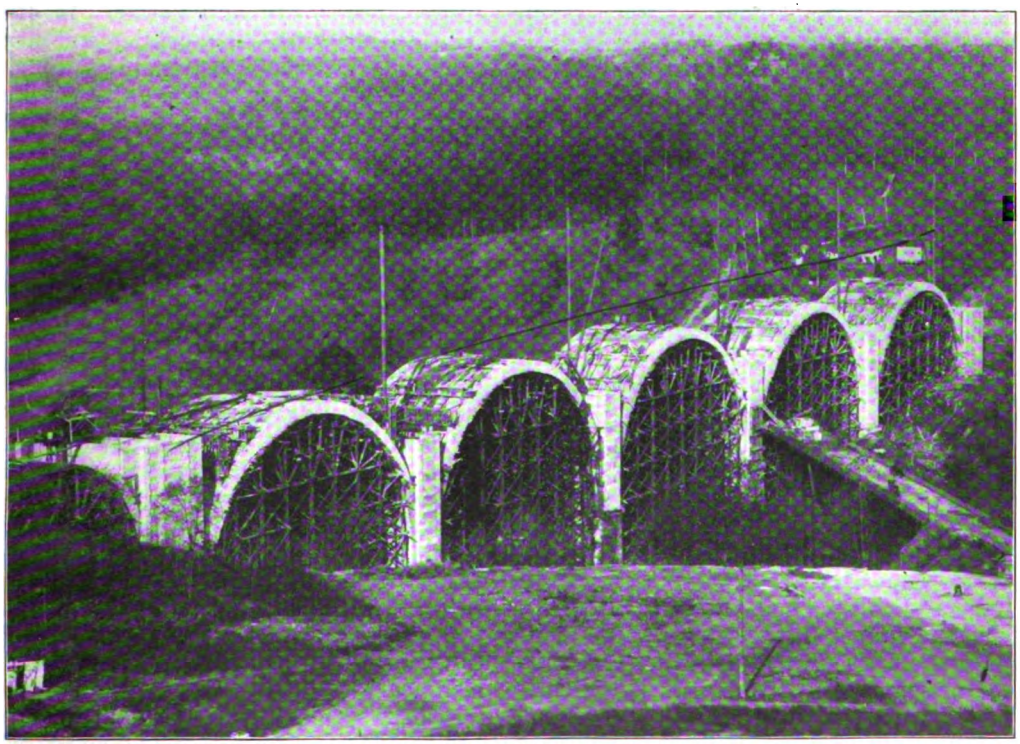
The old steel bridge passes through one of the arches



THE GREATEST CONCRETE BRIDGE IN THE WORLD

The Connecticut Avenue Bridge at Washington, D. C., which is now nearing completion, is 1,450 feet in length and cost $850,000. It crosses a valley that is a Government Reservation and no pains or expense is being spared to make it one of the most beautiful natural parks in the world

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The Drama and Music

A Young Star

As the winter season begins to wane, the theatrical world usually finds a brilliant new playwright or a promising young artist with whom to reckon seriously. The month has produced that anticipated sensation—the popular recognition for stellar honors of a young girl,

HENRIETTA CROSMAN
Who is playing in the farce-comedy, "All of a Sudden Peggy"

barely twenty years of age, who in a night rose from total obscurity into fame. Frances Starr, the leading woman in David Belasco's production of Tully's "Rose of the Rancho," with but two years' experience and but meager training, has displayed a maturity of art seldom encountered in precocious genius. The play itself, admirably staged by that master of stagecraft, Belasco, is a romantic melodrama which might have been termed commonplace had it been less carefully cloaked in all the careful details which make for artistic atmosphere. As it is, dealing satisfactorily with early California days and a Spanish-American romance, this novel setting has formed a delightful framework for the art of a promising young actress who is destined to an unusual career.

Clyde Fitch Redivivus

While one year ago G. Bernard Shaw and J. M. Barrie were the most talked-of playwrights in the theatrical firmament, by a peculiar turn of the wheel of fortune, Clyde Fitch is once more the man of the hour with three simultaneous successes on Broadway. While his clever little comedy, "The Girl Who Has Everything," promises to serve capitally for some time as a vehicle for Eleanor Robson, the fate of "The Straight Road" and "The Truth" as permanent hits still hangs in the balance. In the former Fitch has built a strong drama of the people, borrowing from the slums a picturesque, weak, but not evil type carefully portrayed by Blanche Walsh with her accustomed intensity and power. In contrast, "The Truth" is a gentler and more cynical exposition of life in a higher stratum, with less backbone and therefore a lesser chance to live.

Emotional Drama

The revival of Henry Arthur Jones's masterpiece, "Mrs. Dane's Defense," by Lena Ashwell, has resulted in a tour which is a series of triumphs for this brilliant young Englishwoman. As an exponent of the realistic school, she has few equals. It was in this rôle that she first sprang into fame. Likened to Eleanora Duse in her method of interpretation, it is doubtful whether the Italian artist could present a more superb characterization, as respects cumulative interest, a dramatic intensity, and simple, unaffected, emotional acting. Another emotional drama of foreign manufacture, namely, Lavedan's "The Duel," has met on tour the success denied it during its brief metropolitan run. Dramatically powerful, technically superior, a more brilliant exposé of the ebb and flow of human emotion has rarely been brought to our stage. Its depth and its reality, showing the contest of the soul between the spiritual and the

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Photograph by A. N. Scurlock, Washington

SAMUEL COLERIDGE-TAYLOR, THE MOST CULTIVATED MUSICIAN OF HIS RACE

Mr. Coleridge-Taylor, although only thirty-one years old, ranks as one of the most interesting and remarkable of British composers and conductors. He is the embodiment of the possibilities of the negro under favorable environment. He is a teacher in Trinity College, London, and conductor of the Handel Society and Rochester Choral Society. He has done much to give permanence to the folk-songs of his people, but he is probably best known in England and America by his sympathetic setting in cantata form of portions of Longfellow's "Hiawatha". He is now on a concert tour of this country.

material, places it in the front rank of present-day drama. Otis Skinner lends to its chief rôle a scholarly insight and a spiritual beauty.

Farce Comedies

In the realm of farce-comedy three distinct hits mark the perennial popularity of the play built solely to amuse. In "All of a Sudden Peggy," by Earnest Denny, Henrietta Crosman has created a blithesome, wholesome, altogether bewitching young Irish girl with inimitable comedy touches. It is a clean, graceful little play, neatly put together and embodying some adroit character presentation and development. Not so clever in structure is "Caught in the Rain," by Grant Stewart and William Collier, though the latter has built for himself a comedy rôle admirably adjusted to his peculiar stage personality. While the piece is trivial when viewed from the standpoint of histrionic and literary merit, its laughter-provoking lines will serve to keep it alive. After knocking for some months at the doors of Broadway for a metropolitan hearing, "Brewster's Millions," a dramatization of George Barr McCutcheon's novel, opened quietly and scored an unlooked-for success. Though hopelessly machine-made and well thumbed by three authors and two producers long before it found its premier

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LILLIAN WOODWARD
Who recently appeared in a reading of Stephen Phillips' "Herod" and musical melodramas

performance, nevertheless it has served to place Edward Abeles firmly on his feet as a comedian of the first rank.

Musical Comedy

Crowding close upon the success of Puccini's "Madame Butterfly," comes the latest work of Reginald de Koven, "The Student King," as an alternating bill of the Savage Opera Company. It is a tuneful, romantic opera of the better class, wholesome and in a measure musicianly. It recalls superior comic opera of a decade ago and is evidence of a tendency in the right direction toward an improvement in light musical entertainment. Lina Abarbanell, the little Portuguese nightingale, so-called, is destined to rival the Teutonic Fritzi Scheff for prima donna honors in light opera rôles.

The Great Success of Small Matters

In the realm of lesser opera and musical comedy, several mediocre works, "The Red Mill," "The Spring Chicken," and "The Belle of Mayfair," have made astonishing hits. It is evident the general public still demands frothy, inconsequential musical entertainment. In "Marrying Mary," by Edwin Milton Royle, Marie Cahill has found a vehicle with a farcical, but consistent plot, and is establishing herself as a singing comedienne of unusual methods, combining as she does the comedy manner with a tragic face, in the Ada Rehan school. "Mamselle Sallie" and "The Flower Girl" are less stable in character, yet seem to meet adequately the perennial demand for frivolous amusements.

"Pippa Passes"

A series of special matinées of dramatic poems inaugurated by Mrs. W. L. Le Moyne was introduced by the presentation of Robert Browning's "Pippa Passes." Though dramatically faulty, it is nevertheless an exquisitely beautiful play, and was presented under Mrs. Le Moyne's stage management with thorough artistic understanding. The title rôle of the play was acted effectively, with the irresistible charm of youth, by Mabel Taliaferro. Mrs. Le Moyne presented Ottiwa and the bishop with splendid intensity and power.

The Religious World

Midwinter Evangelism

It is not so long ago that people were declaring that the age of evangelists had passed. However true that may have been a few years since, it is certainly not true now. Not to mention evangelists of the type of "Billy" Sunday, Dr. Torrey is conducting revivals on a considerable scale in a number of cities, while "Gipsy" Smith, after making a profound impression in Boston, Portland and other New England towns, has moved Chicago as no man has moved it for years. An interesting feature in the case of Mr. Smith is that he is on salary and does not exploit his evangelistic success in the interest of income. Another fact is that while his message is peculiarly searching, at the same time it is never somber, but always full of joy. It is a message

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for the earnest man, whatever be his theological belief, and in his case as in the case of Dr. W. J. Dawson we have an evangelist with whom both the liberal and conservative wings of the church can cordially coöperate.

Scientific Christianity vs Christian Science

An interesting experiment is being simultaneously tried in Boston and in England. It is an endeavor on the part of Christian workers to use the results of scientific knowledge in the cure of mental and certain physical disabilities. By a wise use of psycho-therapeutics and neurological study it is believed much can be done to aid the physician's work, with which it will in no way interfere. The experiment in Boston is planned by the Rev. Dr. Elwood Worcester, rector of Emmanuel church. Coöperating with him are Dr. J. J. Putnam and Dr. Richard Cabot of the Harvard Medical School, who have been addressing the members of a weekly class who are meeting the rector and a specialist in neurology for consultations and advice. It is an entirely gratuitous effort on Dr. Worcester's part, who considers this simply as a work correlated to his professional duties as a clergyman. He believes that the relations between body and mind are so interwoven that the one can be made to serve the other to a much larger extent in the healing of disease than has hitherto been recognized by any but Christian Scientists. In a way the experiment is intended to give real scientific character to the influence of religion upon health.

The Religious Education Association

The meeting of the Religious Education Association, to be held the opening week of February in Rochester, promises to be an event of as large religious significance as any of its predecessors. The association has had an exceedingly prosperous year and is to-day stronger than ever before. We have already called attention to its new journal as well as to the assistance which it is calculated to render to all those churches and individuals who really are interested in religious education.

Church and State in France

In September, 1905, THE WORLD TO-DAY published a striking article by Ex-Premier Combes, explaining the position of the French government relative to the break with the Vatican. In September, 1906, we published another article, written by Abbé Klein, expressing the more liberal point of view of the French clergy. The situation in France has reached a point which neither of the writers of these two articles foresaw. The French government has owned most of the church property of France since the revolution. Under the Concordat which Napoleon made in 1801 with Pius VII., the Roman Church recognized the national ownership, but was given the right to use these properties and was supported in large measure by the national funds. In the law which went into effect December 11, 1906, the State put the Roman Church on the same basis as other religious bodies and reasserted its right of ownership over ecclesiastical property to the amount of $250,000,000. At the same time it granted the Roman Church the right to use this property by a very simple expedient. The congregations were to form *associations* or corporations under liberal regulations, and these were to be granted the use of the ecclesiastical properties. The State then discontinued paying the salaries of the Roman clergy, but within certain limits would continue to pay pensions. Waiving the question of the property acquired by the Church since the Concordat, there was no confiscation proposed.

The New Law and Other Religious Bodies

The law which the government wished to apply to the Roman Church was precisely the same as that which it applied to all religious bodies. It was drawn with the intention of preventing another sect or any hostile body getting possession of the property which had been occupied by a religious body prior to the establishment of the *association*. The Protestant churches, the Jews and the Greek Church, have accepted the situation and are organizing their *associations*. It was greatly desired by many leading French Catholics that the Vatican would permit the various Catholic churches to take advantage of the same provisions,

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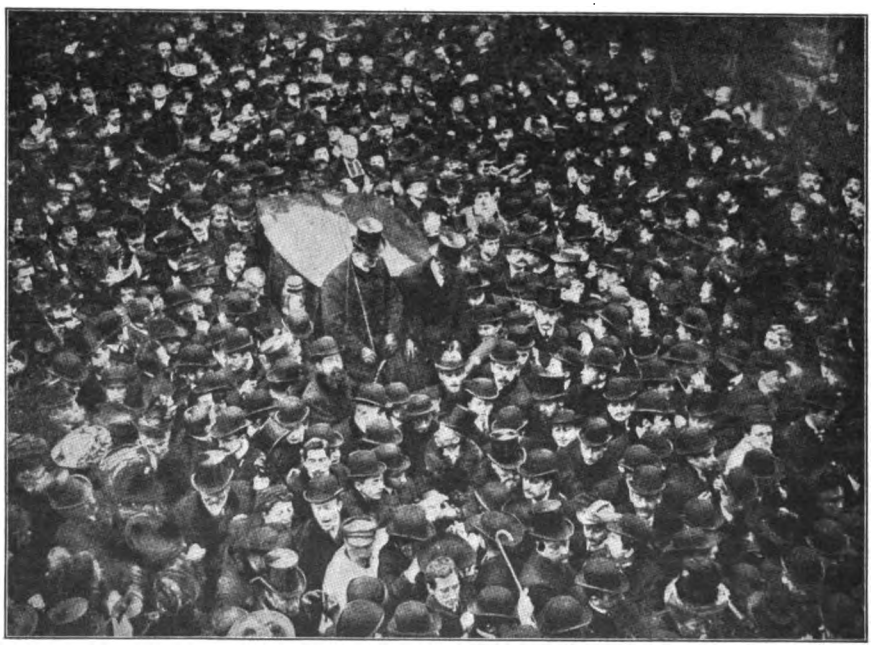
but at this point the situation became complicated by certain conditions which did not apply to other religious bodies.

The Real Issue

The present Pope is a man of lovable disposition, but he is not a statesman. This is very unfortunate, because he has come under the influence of a young Spanish Secretary of State, Merry del Val, who takes an extreme ultramontane position. In the process of establishing the new law governing religious bodies, the ancient Concordat was annulled and the Vatican found itself related to the French republic in just the same way as to the United States, that is, without recognition as an international power. Such a situation the Pope and his Secretary of State could not endure. The population of France is overwhelmingly Catholic. The Pope trusted to this fact and to the loyalty of the French clergy. He boldly refused to permit the clergy to take advantage of even a liberal interpretation of the law of *associations,* which would completely destroy such vestige of his temporal power as remained in France. Thus at present the French nation is waiting as to the next step on the part of either the Pope or the cabinet.

Its Complications

It can not be overlooked, however, that the situation is not as simple as this statement of the main issue might lead one to suppose. The interests of the Church have been to a considerable extent identical with those of the Royalist movement in France. On the other hand, the leaders of the anti-ecclesiastical party are strongly tinctured with an anti-Christian socialism and atheistic views of other sorts. The position of the Roman Catholic clergy may therefore be very easily assumed to be that of those who are being persecuted for religion's sake. In the light of all the facts this is an incorrect statement of the case. Whatever rigorous treatment may be accorded them will be due not to their religion but to their loyalty to the Pope as over against the republic. Placed in a position where they must choose between the law which has approved itself to other religious bodies and allegiance to the Pope, they have chosen the Pope. That the French republic does not proceed more vigorously in enforcing the law will prevent undue sympathy with the Roman Catholic Church of France as enduring persecution. The encyclical just issued by the Pope does not in any way relieve the situation.



A PATHETIC INCIDENT IN THE WAR OF CHURCH AND STATE IN FRANCE

When Cardinal Richard, the Archbishop of Paris, eighty-seven years old, was compelled to leave his old home three thousand of the faithful surrounded his carriage, freed the horses, and drew him to his new residence

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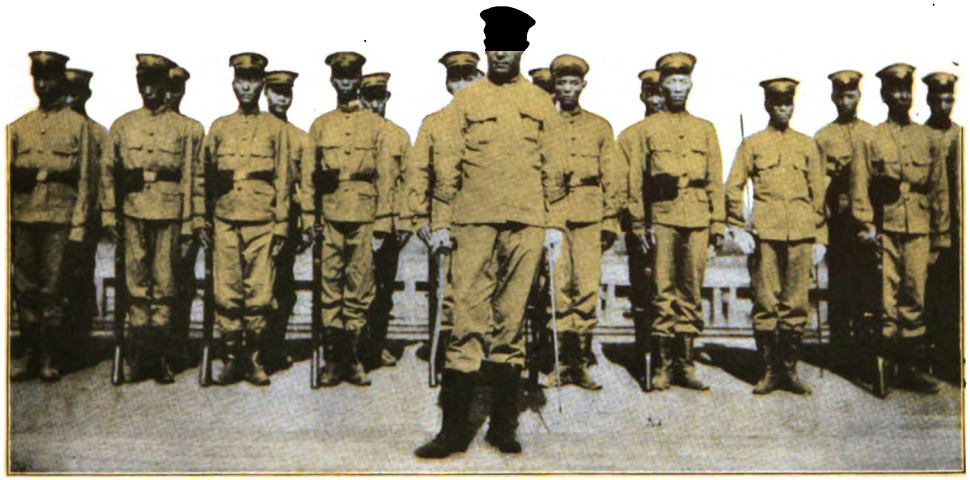

CAN CHINA FIGHT?

BY

HOMER LEA

IGNORANCE of the primary laws of military science and a profound contempt for the soldiers of nations other than their own, are as marked characteristics of all countries to-day as during other ages. The United States is no more an exception in this regard than are nations whose prowess we affect to despise.

Some time after the Spanish-American war I was conversing with a gentleman, a university graduate, on the unpreparedness of the United States to engage in any but a disastrous war with a first-class power. My remarks were received with amazement and incredulity.

"Why, sir!" he exclaimed, "we are good for any three of them!"

I endeavored to make a comparison between the numerical and technical strength, as well as the training and discipline of one European army and the forces available in our own country. This comparison was lightly waved aside as unworthy of consideration.

"Every American household," he informed me, "possesses either a shotgun or a rifle or a revolver. We would at once seize these ready weapons and drive the enemy into the sea!"

As regards officers, he assured me that every American is a born general; and as for technical knowledge or discipline, the simple valor of the American volunteer would prove more than an effective substitute.

This magnificent disdain for foreign armies is unfortunately widely prevalent throughout this country as well as in other lands. It is a species of patriotism, but even more a species of national conceit. And it is this vanity which, more than any other factor, has always been responsible for the unnecessary deaths of innumerable thousands, as well as for great national disasters. Empires and whole nations have fallen because of it.

It is this national conceit that has been a source of China's misfortunes during the last half century. In this period it has taken eight wars, the loss of several tributary kingdoms and the occupation of her ancient capital on two occasions by

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the forces of foreign nations, to teach the great empire to distinguish between it and true patriotism.

Occidentals have become accustomed to regard the Chinese soldier with a contempt as sublime as ignorant. Their deductions are based, not on the military capacity of the Chinese people, but on the results of wars between nations in the zenith of military efficiency, supplied with every modern invention, and China during a period of political decadence, possessed of armies without equipment, without training, without organization, without officers. Such deductions are, therefore, manifestly untrue; no comparison can be made between the fighting qualities of nations except when they are to a relatively high degree equally equipped and organized. Furthermore, this belief in the incapacity and pusillanimity of the Chinese soldier is due to the West's ignorance of the military history of this ancient land. Europe and America know China only during a period of political decadence, in which, as among all nations, military instincts and aspirations have been repressed and debased by corrupt civilian officials, and by a lettered autocracy blinded by bigotry; for both classes know that a military renaissance means their downfall.

THE MEN WHO HELPED TO MAKE CHINA'S NEW ARMY
Lu Chen Fu, director of the railroad police in Shantung, and Major F. Von Lugowski of the Imperial Chinese Military Police, Tientsin district, who is a Pole

A consideration, brief as it might be, of the martial qualities of the Chinese, shows that no nation possesses a military history so extensive, so full of vast wars and endless marches. Nor are the annals of any people more crowded with campaigns of great generals or more illumed with heroic deeds than those of China.

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SIGNAL CORPS "AT REST"

The evolution of the Chinese empire, as that of other nations, has been through the battle-field. The trumpet here has heralded in new epochs; from the crash of combat have come new liberties; from the life-blood of innumerable myriads has sprung new national strength; while in the ashes and ruins of these wars have been buried outworn customs and political corruption. Every one of the twenty-five dynasties that have reigned over China was founded by successful generals; and each of them, on the eve of its dissolution, has heard from surrounding armies the melancholy taps of its approaching end.

Civilians and scholars have played but a small part in the political development of China. They have never founded dynasties, but have always been conspicuous in their downfall.

China during her long existence has seldom if ever been free for any length of time from the necessity of warfare, either with foreign foes or internal rebellions. The awfulness of these wars is hardly comprehensible. For instance, in the wars during the decline of the Tang

CHINESE INFANTRY
Bringing in the wounded, using rifles for stretchers

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A COLUMN ON THE MARCH

dynasty in the eighth century, the population was reduced thirty-five millions in fifty-two years. At the battle of Chongli, during the sixth century, nearly three hundred thousand soldiers were slain on the field of battle or drowned in the turbulent waters of the Hoaiho. Actions are unnumbered where losses exceeded one hundred thousand. In a battle on the willow-fringed banks of the Euho, during the civil war in the fifteenth century, nearly a million and a half men were engaged. The fighting lasted for several days, from the dusk of dawn until night stopped the carnage. When the battle ended, the corpses of hundreds of thousands were strewn over the millet-fields and wide, sandy plains of Techau.

During the Taiping Rebellion, fifty years ago, not less than twenty millions perished. The once well-tilled fields of many provinces became jungles, through which browsed the shy, spotted deer; rice-fields sank into marshes, where the wild duck winged its solitary way; and once populous towns became the haunts of wild beasts.

The conquest of China has been accomplished twice; once by the Mongols under Genghis Khan and his descendants; once by the Manchus. Both of these conquests occurred during periods of political decadence, such as we have witnessed throughout the nineteenth century.

During the Tartar conquest, China was divided into two rival kingdoms, each on the verge of political dissolution. Yet it took these terrible Mongols, swooping down from their desolate fastnesses in the deserts of Shamo, under the greatest conquerors the world has ever produced, seventy years to effect the conquest of this leaderless and disunited empire. In much fewer years, the whole of central and western Asia, as well as eastern Europe, echoed with the triumphant hoof-beats of these wild horsemen, and bowed submissively before their cow-tail banners. Asia, Russia, Poland, Hungary, Bulgaria, Roumania and Bosnia were conquered and plundered by them before China accepted their dynasty of Yuen. The people's defense of their nationality and liberties was as great in its heroism as it was long in its duration.

The siege of Sianyong endured for five years. After four years, a portion of the defenses, called the city of Fanching, was captured, the garrison fighting to the end; from street to street, from house to house, not a single soldier survived the combat; and the triumph of the Mongols was only over the cinders and ruins of the city

In some sieges, where the defenders saw no hope of continuing the contest, entire populations immolated themselves on their thresholds; and the besiegers, scaling the deserted walls, invaded but a savage solitude, inhabited by the corpses of its citizens.

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Nations contemplating the conquest of China would do well not to mistake dynastic for national weakness; nor the pusillanimity of politicians for a characteristic of the people. They should remember that while Japan drove an undisciplined, unarmed and leaderless Chinese force out of Korea in 1894, in the seventh century a Chinese army on the same battle-fields destroyed the combined armies of Japan and Korea, and the flames from four hundred war-junks of Nippon lit up with lurid glare the bitter waters of the Yellow Sea. Again in the sixteenth century, the greatest of Japanese soldiers, Hideyoshi, invaded Korea, boasting that with his mighty host he would invade the country of the Great Ming (China) and fill with hoarfrost from his sword the whole sky over the four hundred provinces. But on these same battle-fields the Japanese were again defeated and driven to Fushan. Armaments and military efficiency vary, but national courage is constant. China needs only to remedy the first.

CHINESE CAVALRY IN ACTION
A thrown horse is used as breastwork

It might be well to notice that the same principles that inspired the United States to intervene in behalf of Cuba caused China to go to the rescue of the Koreans.

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STORMING THE HEIGHTS

This intervention in behalf of neighboring kingdoms, either to save them from foreign oppression or from the anarchy of rebellion, has occurred on many occasions, and has been accomplished with paternal solicitude and unselfish honor. In no instance can it be charged to China that advantage was taken of these opportunities to acquire power or territory or to impose her customs on the kingdoms she had succored. Their rights and liberties have in no instance been violated.

The Emperor Yonglu, who put down a rebellion in Tonquin, at the solicitation of the Tonquinese king, gave the following instructions to his generals on the eve of their departure:

"Spare no efforts to capture Li Kima (the rebel), but be careful yourselves not to commit the crimes you are going to punish. Maintain carefully discipline among your soldiers, and do not increase the troubles with which that country is agitated. Respect the burial places and houses of the inhabitants, their goods and also their wives and daughters. Spare the lives of those who surrender. If I hear of any one of you breaking these orders, all of his services shall be forgotten and I shall punish him with severity."

In 1791 the Goorkhas, the people of an independent Indian kingdom on the southern slopes of the Himalayas, invaded Tibet with an army of twenty to thirty thousand soldiers, tempted thither by the fabulous wealth to be found in its lamaseries and temples. Degarchi, the second city to Lahassa, and the vast lamasery of Teshu Lumbo, were captured. The Tibetans appealed to Peking, and General Sungfu was ordered to their assistance from Sining, a thousand miles northeast of Lahassa. This force traversed the barren snow-swept wastes of Kuku Nor; it passed over the crags of Dakzy, through the gorges of the Mur Ussu, and across the ice-fields of Shiubden Gomba. No army in the military annals of the world ever made a more stupendous or terrifying march than Sungfu's, across the wild Roof of the World.

The maneuvers of the Chinese com-

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AN ATTACK BY RUSHES

mander were carried out with such vigor and skill that he forced the Goorkhas into line of battle on the north slope of the Himalayas. As is their custom, the Chinese presented to the Goorkhas conditions by which they could return peacefully to their own country. This ultimatum included the surrender of a renegade lama, the spoil taken from the lamaseries, a promise of better conduct in the future and a recognition of the suzerainty of China.

The Goorkhas haughtily rejected the conditions, and a battle ensued on the plains of Tengri Maiden, at an altitude of nearly three miles, which resulted in the Goorkhas abandoning the field and much of their booty. The Chinese pursuit was carried on with vigor, and a second defeat was inflicted at Kirong Pass. Half-way between Daibong and Kirong the Goorkhas defended the passage over a chasm for three days; and their final stand was made only twenty miles from the Goorkha capital on the cliffs over the gorge of the Tadi.

USING HELIOGRAPH AND WIGWAGGING

The valor of the Goorkhas in this last desperate battle was such that the advance of the Chinese was checked. General Sungfu, turning his artillery on both forces as they came together on the edge of the cliffs, calmly assured his own troops that as soon as the Goorkhas were destroyed the fire of the guns would cease. So the artillery continued to play impartially on the whole mass of combatants until the Goorkhas and many thousand Chinese had been swept over the precipices, down through the blue haze, to where the torrent of the Tadi boils among its black bowlders.

Military men acquainted with the Goorkhas know them to be the bravest fighters in the Anglo-Indian army, and will appreciate what heroic efforts the Chinese soldiers must have made to capture their defensive positions at an altitude where physical exertion is accompanied oftentimes by excessive pain. This campaign forms, without a doubt, one of the most remarkable exploits in military history, and shows what a Chinese army properly led is capable of accomplishing.

Naturally it is asked, if the Chinese possess such military capacity, why is it that they are so far behind western nations? The reasons

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A DETOUR

The Chinese soldiers in their new uniforms resemble the Japanese, and they are just as vigorous fighters

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are, as heretofore stated, primarily due to China's period of political decadence during the last century, a century that has been productive in the Occident of every military weapon, instrument and utensil now used. Secondarily, that while the military evolution of western nations is the successive and simultaneous evolution of many countries interdependent, as are their languages, laws, and religions, that of China is purely Chinese; they have worked it out themselves, alone and unaided, as they have their language, laws and customs.

The earliest Chinese military books treat most sensibly on modes of marching, the necessity of having plans of the enemies' countries, prohibiting the troops from harrassing the people, ways of building bridges, security and information, castramentation, outposts, sentries, discipline, major and minor tactics.

Chinese engineers constructed suspension bridges five hundred feet long, with a roadbed of twelve feet over great chasms and gorges, twenty centuries before they were used in Europe.

During the Tang dynasty, the national army was organized into 895 regiments, giving a standing force of about nine hundred thousand. These soldiers were trained individually as well as collectively.

In the seventh century, pensions were granted to the widows and orphans of those who died in the service.

At the siege of Taiyuen, in the eighth century, mines and counter-mines were used, the besiegers losing over sixty thousand men in less than a month. During the tenth century, promotions from the ranks and throughout all grades were regulated by examinations. In the twelfth century, armored cars holding twenty-four soldiers were placed on the line of battle, proving especially effective against cavalry.

In such a manner, antedating that of Europe, might the military evolutions of China be traced. But the time has now come when customs and tactics and armament superior to anything ever produced within her boundaries are being adopted. The past can not and will not be forgotten, but the glorious deeds that illume its pages will only serve as inspiration for heroic acts in the future.

At the present time, the rehabilitation of China is taking place, though the world makes but little note of this Herculean task. Not only has it been necessary to clean out the Augean stables of political indifference and corruption, but to adopt a system entirely alien, something heretofore never done by the Chinese.

While wonderful changes are now taking place in China, much yet remains to be accomplished. Heretofore, during this dynasty, the armies of the empire corresponded to our militia. Each province raised its own army, the result being that in no two provinces were the military forces similar in any particular. One would have the German system and German instructors; others, French or Japanese or English or Russian, etc. This difference in military systems gave rise to an endless variety of armament and general equipment. Formerly, after troops had been more or less trained by foreign instructors, they were turned over to Chinese officers who had acquired their position by bribes, influence or literary standing, but who knew absolutely nothing about handling their commands.

The enormous amounts of money squandered on these useless armies will, if wisely expended, place China in a few years on an armed equality with other powers.

The nationalization of the provincial armies has not as yet been undertaken. To accomplish it would be practically to do away with these forces and deprive civilian officials of all military authority. This is the next step that must be taken. A general staff at the capital must control and direct the entire military establishment of the empire, and the military schools throughout the provinces must be uniform in their instruction, and placed under its jurisdiction. By these plans, not only in a comparatively short time, can an army of half a million to a million soldiers be raised, but can be maintained at less expense than the former and present provincial armies. In time of war there will be the same unity, cohesion and effectiveness as is found in the Occident, and not the chaos or worthlessness that have characterized China's forces during the late period of her political decadence.

Certainly no country has better material to make soldiers of than China. Pos-

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sessed of wonderful powers of endurance, the Chinese are able to undergo cheerfully a vast amount of fatigue. They never complain of hardships they know to be necessary. They never get drunk, and a provost-marshal is seldom if ever needed. Gentle in the ordinary times of peace, in war they are exceedingly daring and reckless of life. Their intelligence to grasp and their capacity to remember the most intricate details of technical instruction, as well as their calm patience, make them especially valuable in modern warfare, while their veneration for authority makes discipline, an army's foundation, a task of easy accomplishment.

Those who love peace as well as justice will rejoice in this military reformation of China. As a defenseless nation, it has already been productive of many wars; and, continuing under the same conditions, would be responsible for as many more. But a strong China, armed for the protection of her rights, will give a quietus to those very ambitions that her military weakness has invited.

THE MAKERS OF NEW CHINA

BY

WILLIAM ELLIOT GRIFFIS

AUTHOR OF "THE MIKADO'S EMPIRE," "KOREA, THE HERMIT NATION," ETC.

JUST over a century ago Robert Morrison, pathfinder for English-speaking people into the Chinese language and literature, was admitted into the Independent Academy of Hoxson, England. There he gained that liberal education which fitted him to hide Christ's leaven in the Chinese mass. Sailing in 1807 for the great Walled Empire, he bore a letter from James Madison and made many warm friends among the Americans at Canton. When he died, beside a tomb at Macao, liberal-minded merchants took counsel as to a fitting memorial. They decided to rear in his name something better than masonry. By their money, chiefly, the first Protestant Christian school in China, non-ecclesiastical and non-sectarian, was founded by the Morrison Education Society. Samuel Robbins Brown, of Yale University, was brought out to be head master. In a large sense, this was the beginning of a new China. The Morrison centennial is to be celebrated at Shanghai next May, delegates coming from every Christian land, after the world's convention of the Young Men's Christian Association at Tokio.

The Chinese were then without sensitiveness to the outer world, of which they knew next to nothing. To aliens, China lacked nerves or conscience. She recognized no foreign nations except as vassals. She ignored all her subjects who left the frontiers. She bound the feet of her women and the brains of her men. She built walls alike against "horsey Tartars" and all non-Confucian ideas. She trusted to lofty mountain chains, vast deserts and the ever destroying ocean, to keep out foreign devils of all sorts, including the intractable Japanese, who would not come under her system of sovereignty. Having patiently elaborated throughout the ages a standard of politico-religious orthodoxy, she maintained it by a fierce and cruel inquisition which denied religious liberty to all employed by the State.

To-day we see what in 1834, only one lifetime ago, was but a dim hope, more than fulfilled. Not only are the Chinese abroad in the world as emigrants, travelers, statesmen, scholars and inquirers, but in the Middle Kingdom itself the leaven is working mightily. Those who have eyes to see already behold the brightness of the rising of new China. As busy, often as unseen, as coral insects, thousands are working to rear the structure. Not only are there Samuel R. Brown's pupils, and pupils' pupils, as in the instance of the

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new ambassadors at Washington and London, but in other illustrious instances, intelligent Christians and scholars of the third generation toil with hope that China will yet be civilized, modern and Christian. It is our purpose in this paper to sketch some of the makers of new China, both native and alien. We shall deal with ideas as well as men, with the needs of the ancient empire and how they are met.

First of all, and most deeply throughout all public and private life, China needs "truth in the inward parts." Official falsehood and dishonesty are the deep-seated diseases that ever weaken and betray. Appearance and reality must correspond. The Chinaman is too anxious to "save the face" of a thing. No normal Chinese understands how anybody without a selfish purpose could ever journey across mountains and seas to teach his children saving truth, for no normal Confucian understands unselfishness. It was for this reason, chiefly, that the first missionaries' subjects were, of necessity, girl-babies picked off the dunghill, and why even the Morrison school authorities had to offer board, clothing and tuition free, in order to get scholars. In spite of gilt-paper morality, ostentatiously plastered on all walls, and the Ben Franklin-like maxims of Confucius, the Chinese literati consider real unselfishness, even when they can understand it, as highly "improper."

This is the bottom reason why the Chinese have had to appoint foreigners to collect their customs and revenues at the treaty ports. Not to "knock down" a percentage on all business transactions seems foolish. About absolute honesty there is in their eyes something unearthly. They chose a British subject, Robert Hart, not merely because, having had nine years' experience in consular service in China, he was acquainted with the Chinese language, but because they believed him to be strong enough in the hands to drop bribes. They have decorated him with the red button, the double dragon and the peacock's feather. Made deputy commissioner in 1859 and Inspector-General of Customs in 1863, he completed his fortieth year of service in the latter office in 1903.

Sir Robert Hart, born in North Ireland in 1835, and thus in his prime of seventy years, is one of the most illustrious sons of Queen's College, Belfast. He graduated

SIR ROBERT HART
The Englishman who is Inspector-General of Customs in China

in 1854, the year of Perry's treaty with Japan. Among his wonderful works in China are the organization of a great fleet of steamers to suppress pirates and smugglers, a line of lighthouses along the whole coast "to give light and to save life," and the inauguration of a postal service now being extended throughout the empire. When that stalwart, Sir Harry Parkes, died, Mr. Hart declined to serve as British minister. He endured the purgatory of the siege of the Peking legations by those ultra-patriotic fellows, the Boxers, to emerge into the heaven of a still higher appointment which gave him full control of all the customs, native and foreign. In true Chinese style, which is retroactive in method, Sir Robert Hart's ancestors have been ennobled for three generations. Pretty much all the European governments have decorated him, and the number of honorary letters after his name is as long as a dragon's tail. He can cover his whole coat-front with decorations. He

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heads a legion of about five thousand men, about two hundred of whom are educated Chinese and nearly a thousand of whom are foreigners, all governed according to strict rules of the civil service. Mr. Hart wonders how young Americans, with such

REV. YOUNG J. ALLEN
Editor-in-Chief of the Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge Among the Chinese

splendid possibilities of a career in our land of opportunity, can think of coming to China to serve under him, but they do.

While many of the sowers of the seed and hiders of the leaven have passed from the earth, others are still busy. Though they see already a vast and whitening harvest, they covet with the eagerness of hope, even greater wonders in China. Thirty-one years ago, I enjoyed a tour in Japan with Rev. Young J. Allen, an American scholar and missionary of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, who had left for a while his editorial and translating labors at Shanghai for refreshment in evergreen Japan. He had chosen as his life-work the transfusion of Christian and Occidental ideas into the Chinese mind. He is still the chief of the editorial staff of that magnificent Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge Among the Chinese, of which Sir Robert Hart is president, and among whose officers and directors we find, besides gentlemen with clerical prefixes and affixes, the names of eminent merchants and other laymen.

Instead of the stalwart young traveler of three decades ago, we see now the white-haired and snowy-bearded editor of the *Review of the Times*, and *Chinese Weekly*, in Chinese, read largely by the mandarins and literati. Of these, nearly five million pages have been printed. He has put scores of solid volumes and thousands of important dissertations, tracts and articles into the Chinese language. In 1903 he finished his "History of the Czars of Russia" and "Lawrence's International Law," and prepared a special number of the *Review of the Times* for free distribution at the triennial examinations in the provincial capitals, where gather a total of over one hundred thousand students. In 1905 appeared his great work on "The Treatment of Woman as an Index of Civilization." This is a comparative study of civilizations, ancient and modern, "as self-determined by the position, condition and treatment accorded to their womenkind, which is recognized as constituting the best single test of the civilization of any people." It is in seventeen parts, or Chinese volumes, fittingly illustrated. Profound and far-reaching has been the influence of Dr. Allen's writings, which furnish intellectual food for thousands of the young men of New China now hungry for the western knowledge.

The honorary and general secretary of this Diffusion Society is Rev. Timothy Richard, D.D., Litt. D., of the English Baptist Mission. He is a Welshman, and graduate of Haverford West College, Wales, his honorary titles coming from Emory College and Brown University in the United States. He is as full of Celtic fire and enthusiasm as he is also of tremendous physical vigor, mental initiative and personal tact. Aided by his wife, who is a good Chinese translator, and his scholarly Chinese assistants, he also has put scores of volumes of solid literature into

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the vernacular. Recently he has been organizing educational work for the Chinese themselves. In 1903 he spent four months in Shansi (it was in winter, and the need of an overcoat was acute) establishing a modern college which is to be the nucleus of a university, with seven foreign and six Chinese professors, which was opened in June, 1902. He has had much to do with the organization of a government translation bureau, which is to provide text-books with uniform terminology, to prevent danger of confusion. Of course the Society's books are in certain measure reprinted by both private and government bookstores, for as yet China has made no provision for copyright. No educational history of the future can leave out the name of Timothy Richard. Largely through his efforts and those of men like him, the viceroys, beginning in April, 1897, have been sending students to America and Japan. In the young Island Empire there are now over thirteen thousand Chinese lads and maidens seeking knowledge, of whom over one-fourth are studying at government expense. Some of these are very young girls. "Scarcely a steamer brings less than a hundred, and three or four hundred are always waiting in Shanghai for an opportunity to come."

There are seven missionaries actively connected with the Diffusion Society as editors or translators, among whom Rev. D. McGillivray, of the University of Toronto, must be mentioned, as a vigorous and voluminous author and translator, and also the Rev. F. L. Hawks Pott, President of St. John's College, Shanghai, one of the many institutions which are training up the new kind of Chinaman. Probably no living foreigner has done more by personal influence, masterly preaching and indefatigable labors to make the New China than Griffith John, who, at Yonkers, New York, is now resting among us after fifty years of toil.

Yet what can foreigners do without native coöperation? Of course there will be, in this ancient state, as there has been in Japan and Korea, hurricane reformers. Eager and ambitious men who have no patience with the slow processes of life, whether of seed, leaven or incubation, will attempt, even in bloody haste, destructive revolution. When selfish ends and political spoil are so much as suspected in Peking, there is not much hope for a reformer. Men of unimpeachable character, whose motives are believed to be unadulterated, are most likely to lead China in the new path.

Among such patriots was the recently

REV. TIMOTHY RICHARD
A Welshman who is noted as a Chinese translator and organizer of educational work in China

deceased Chang Chih Tung, who was the leading viceroy, unless we give that title to Yuan. In 1898 Chang wrote a book which has been put into English under the title of "China's Only Hope," which called for a reform of the civil service examinations and the introduction of scientific subjects. He had long been the patron of modern education and the founder of colleges and schools according to the new and western methods. When in 1900 the secret mandate is said to have been sent from Peking, requiring the massacre of all foreigners, Chang disobeyed it. With the governors of other provinces he secured peace in the Yangtse valley,

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and thus perhaps saved the country from dismemberment. In April, 1903, he went to the capital by steamer and railroad, the first of the viceroys thus to do. Very naturally those who expect China to move rapidly complain of men like him as mix-

LIU KUNG YIH
A Chinese reformer who loves flowers

tures of the old and the new, and find fault with that apparent indirectness of thinking which western men ascribe to the usual Chinese mandarin. But no Occidental has yet fathomed "the yellow brain," and Chang, like Liu Kung Yih, the bluntest and most straightforward of reformers, knew what he was about. As for Liu, he so loves flowers that to be photographed without some of his pets would seem eccentric and beneath his dignity.

Probably the most vigorous of all the makers of the New China is the successor of Li Hung Chang, Yuan Shih Kai. He is the youngest of the viceroys and is governor of the imperial provinces nearest the capital. Those who know Yuan's previous history, under his great master, in Korea, do not need to be told of the long and intimate knowledge of foreigners and of their ways and ideas, both good and evil, which Yuan has enjoyed, nor of his clearness of mind, decision and vigor. When Li died, there was no man so eminently fitted for the vacant place as Yuan. On December 5, 1901, he succeeded in getting issued an imperial proclamation to the various viceroys, governors and literary chancellors of provinces, which, so far as could be done on paper, revolutionized learning. This was accomplished by granting official recognition and the opening of the highest avenues of government service to graduates of the new and modern colleges, which prepare the way also for feeders to the new modern universities. The plans and recommendations of President W. M. Hayes, an American educator, were taken by Yuan as the basis of his memorial to the throne, which secured this great educational movement.

It is to Yuan, mainly, that China is indebted for her new army of eighty thousand drilled soldiers, equipped in modern style. When Great Britain, through her great Colonial Secretary Morley, offered to meet the Chinese Government half way in the abolition of the opium traffic, it was Yuan that responded with such promptitude and vigor that British conservatives of a Palmerstonian type called this action of a Chinese a "menace" to British commercial supremacy in China.

The tremendous naval and military successes of Japan over Russia have turned the mind of Young China, especially, toward the once pupil nation. The reversal in the positions of China and Japan in the eyes of the world is one of the marvels of our age, but the change of view in the ideals and outlook of the Chinese and Japanese themselves is no less wonderful. Once in the Mikado's Empire the ideal golden age looked for was in the union of Occidental material forces with Confucian ethics and social ideals. In the Middle Kingdom, the mere suggestion of learning anything from Japan seemed both an in-

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sult and an absurdity. In A. D. 1907, we see the Japanese a whole generation away from the whilom scholar's dream, while the Court of Peking, besides having a high chamberlain now in Tokio studying the curricula of the Mikado's court, has despatched an Imperial Commission of thirty and more to study methods of progress in Japan as well as in the United States and Europe. Even Chinese princes have visited us during the last year.

Even more significant is the steady invasion of China by the Japanese with a view to her intellectual and educational conquest. Rev. Tasuké Harada, of Kobe, Japan, in his remarkable paper, read before the Fifth Triennial Meeting of the Educational Association of China, held in Shanghai, May 17, 1905, pointed out the three channels of Japanese influence on the Chinese Empire. These were: (1.) Japanese teachers engaged in educational work in China. In the school near Shanghai, which trains Japanese young men in Chinese, besides 150 graduates, there are 320 students. In addition to those in the Chinese government service (fifteen being professors in the State universities), educational and advisory, there are probably two hundred Japanese high-grade teachers in the provinces, more or less competent and receiving five or six times the salaries possible at home. (2.) Every one of the eighteen provinces of China is represented by students in Japan; three: Hupeh, Hunan and Szechuen, having more than three hundred each and others from one hundred to ten or twenty. Over a hundred are from Manchuria. Most of these are in preparatory schools in or near Tokio, with a view to military, naval, legal or medical courses.

It is unfortunately too true that many of the lads, whether sent at government or at private expense, return to China "half-baked," anti-Christian and anti-Caucasian; but probably the majority become modern in ideas and tastes. After all, as a Japanese Christian author says, "the liberation of the mind is the best preparation for the truth." Away from home, the Chinaman is more susceptible to Christian teachings. (3.) Equally noticeable is the literary influence of Japan on China. From primary school text-books

YUAN SHIH KAI

A Chinese Viceroy, successor to Li Hung Chang, and an active leader in the reform movement. He was influential in securing the imperial proclamation which opened the highest positions in the government service to graduates of the new and modern colleges. He was also prime mover in the abolition of the opium traffic.

to books on philosophy, history and science, the number of Japanese works done into Chinese is enormous. One Chinese dealer in 1905 enumerates, in his catalogue of over six hundred books, thirty-six new volumes on themes of contemporary interest. Besides Japanese periodicals published in China, an increasing number of Chinese read Japanese. It is a modest estimate that increases Mr. Harada's figures of May, 1905, over twenty-five per cent in January, 1907. Certainly China, vast as is her mass, is moving.

In this too brief enumeration of the makers of the New China, we do not forget a score of other honored but unmentioned names. We have simply pointed out a few, of the soil, on the neighboring Sunrise Land, and from afar. These men are giving Tennyson's dictum a new meaning. For, after all, "a cycle of Cathay" is but threescore years, and there is getting to be much less difference between "fifty years of Europe" and sixty of China.

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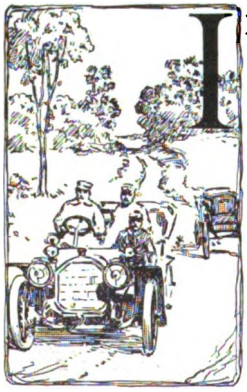
A gasoline runabout in use by a rural free delivery man

THE CONQUERING MOTOR CAR

BY

DAVID BEECROFT



IN the estimate of the financial magnate, minutes are of more value than were hours to his father, or days to his grandfather. Transportation is the problem of the present century: quicker locomotion within the confines of a city, quicker transportation between city and city, between state and state, between country and country and between continent and continent. Irresistible Father Time has been cutting from the allotted threescore and ten of human usefulness, and the business career of fifty or sixty years, common in the earlier part of the past century, is now reduced to twenty or thirty; scores, even hundreds of our greatest men accomplishing the life task in fewer years than this. Time-devouring inventions have made it possible within a business life of a decade to achieve more than our predecessors attained in threescore years of industrial pursuit. The telegraph, now sixty years old, has made those brief threescore equal to three centuries; the telephone changes minutes to hours; cable lines, linking continents together, accomplish the labors of weeks in a matter of minutes; and throughout the office, the store, factory, warehouse, depot and every center or subcenter of activity the introduction of labor-reducing and time-eliminating systems and methods has added decades to the span of life, in spite of the years that relentless fate is clipping off at the sunset end.

In this great quest for extending minutes into hours, and weeks to years, transportation stands preëminent. Through the modern ocean greyhound an ocean life of six weeks becomes one of as many days; on land, the limited trains have accomplished a like result; and within the boundaries of cities electric surface cars, subway lines, elevated systems and suburban steam systems have attained the same end. But these highways of land transportation are restricted, their pathway is that of a pair of metal tracks — immobile. A person remote from these tracks must consume time in

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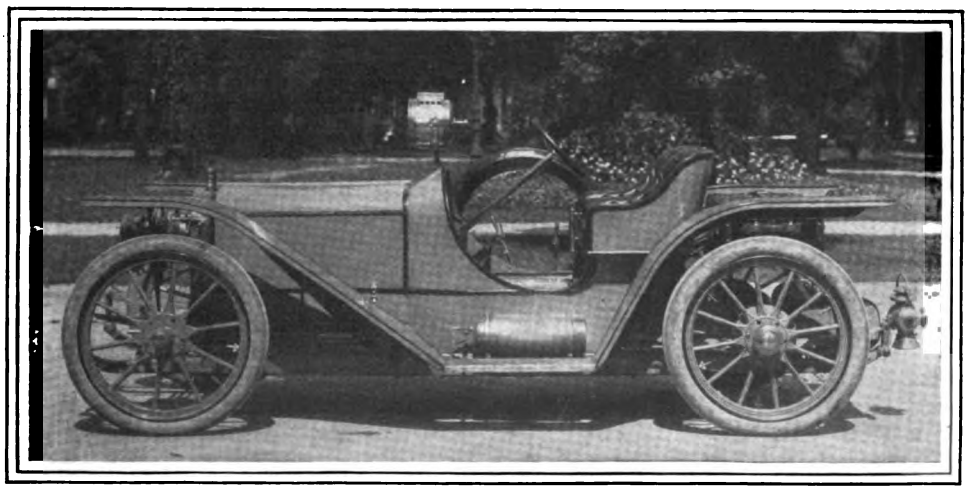
reaching and leaving them, and much of the time saved by them is expended in this way.

To meet this need of haste, we now have the motor car, the automobile, the vehicle that ten years ago was incapable of a speed exceeding twenty miles an hour but which since has become the fastest traveler known, exceeding in its flight the highest-powered steam locomotive and equaling that of the best electric car. The motor car needs not the guiding rails, the level right of way or the innumerable depots along its line of travel. Its pathway is that of the horse, the common highway; it mounts the hills, or descends them, with a control not approached by its competitors, and its passenger stations are the doorsteps of the homes or entrances of the business offices. Along the highway its possible speed is that of the railroad train, its control a hundred times more sensitive; it is, in short, the private car to the citizen, the private trolley car to the merchant; and reduces the size of metropolitan cities as does the steamboat that of the ocean, or the eighteen-hour train that of a continent.

What are the possibilities in store for such a vehicle of transportation, which has, in one short dozen of years, exceeded the accomplishments of steam and the electric car?

Already the motor car has taken its place as one of the accepted methods of locomotion, in fact, the approved type of locomotion for rural roads and city streets, in that it is incomparably quicker than the horse, and is better adapted to city needs, where street congestion is the problem to be solved. Already the motor vehicle is being manufactured by one hundred and fifty makers in America, in factories equipped throughout with the best machinery produced, and employing from three hundred to four thousand employees. New factories are being added each month, and yet the demand is far in excess of the supply. So great is it, in fact, that before the opening of the present season several of the factories had their entire output of machines sold and had booked orders for the 1908 trade. Some of these factories manufacture one thousand machines a season, and others build four thousand cheaper-priced vehicles. In foreign lands, notably France, Germany, England, Belgium, Italy and Switzerland, the same condition rules; the factories working to their capacity the year round, making enlargements each season, and yet keeping constantly behind in the production of cars.

The advance of the motor car goes hand in hand with that of the high-speed hydrocarbon, or gasoline engine, as it is because of this wonderful power generator that the gasoline motor car is possible. This motor is yet far from perfection, as far in fact as was the steam-engine in the days of Watt when but the



A NEW TYPE OF MOTOR CAR FOR 1907

High-powered roadsters are popular for their swiftness and tire economy

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vaguest rudiments of steam had been translated by the inventor. The present efficiency of the gasoline motor approaches but thirty per cent — a creditable showing, however, for the sixteen years of its life. Before the efficiency has reached the fifty or seventy-five per cent mark, years will have elapsed, and throughout that period the economy of the machine will have increased and its utility will have multiplied.

Already the motor car has invaded countless avenues of pleasure transportation and almost as many of the routes of industrial locomotion. To these can be added its activity in the field of battle, its usefulness in fire-fighting, its successful invasion of farm life, its competent service in mining work, its efficient performances in railroading. In all of these its success is attributable to two reasons: its exceptional speed and its relative cost of operation compared with horses for equal amounts of work done.

When first introduced the motor car was considered but a profitless luxury, a kind of overgrown plaything for the epicures. Within a year or two optimists saw in it a successor to the horse for women to go shopping in, or for a theater party. Before this stage was reached ultra-optimists conceived its exceptional value in the industrial sphere, it affording cheaper transportation of merchandise from the factory to the storehouse, from the warehouse to the dock, and from the retailer to the consumer than was possible with horse-drawn wagons. Scarcely had its serviceability in these circles been tested than promoters seized upon it for stage routes through country places, remote from railroads, where the possible patronage would not warrant the construction of trolley lines. Following closely upon this came its adoption by metropolitan newspapers for quick delivery work, it eclipsing steam, electric or horse systems in this regard; and so great was its economy that enterprising concerns constructed special cars for traveling on the railroad tracks, by means of which delivery to surrounding towns and cities is effected hours before that possible by the steam trains. Simultaneously with this portion of the motor car invasion came that in the military field, the car proving its right to supersede the horse, or mule-train in the commissariat, as well as in the transportation of quick-firing guns and the carrying of outposts. Within the last four years farm operations have come beneath its sway, and it is now pulling the plow, hauling the self-

A PARIS MOTOR OMNIBUS
In London also the picturesque horse-drawn omnibus is rapidly being replaced by the motor bus

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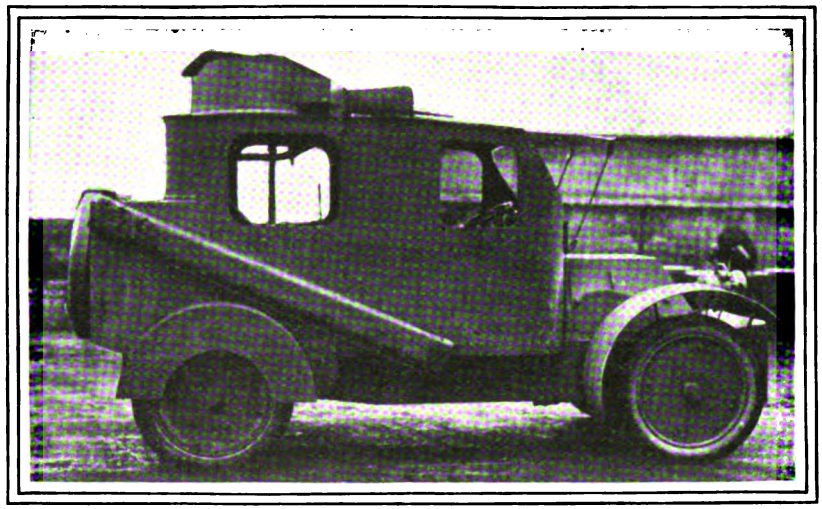
binders, driving the threshing machines, grinding the grain and transporting farm products to market.

Added to this review of conquests comes the motor car's displacement of the trolley car; street cars propelled by gasoline motors now being used in not a few European cities and centers in Africa and Asia. These motor cars have the advantage of cheaper installation with the absence of power-houses, overhead or underground electric transmitting wires and are not subject to humiliating breakdowns when an interruption of the electric current disables the entire system. As a fitting climax to this successful campaign is the introduction of the gasoline motor car on railroads, such cars now operating on western roads where the traffic is not sufficient to warrant the frequent running of steam trains and yet where the people



THE ARMORED CAR EQUIPPED WITH A RAPID-FIRING GUN

THE ELECTRIC AMBULANCE

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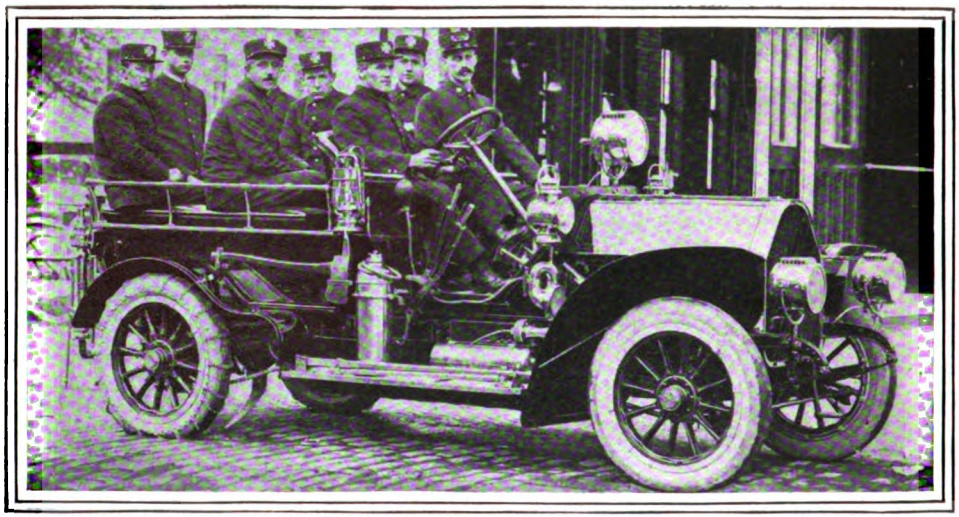

A MOTOR WAGON IN THE SERVICE OF THE SPRINGFIELD, MASS., FIRE DEPARTMENT

along the line clamor for frequent service and semi-daily mails. To this list could be added numerous other adaptations of the motor vehicle, all tending to show its suitability for every phase of transportation, by reason of its speed, its simplicity of operation and its cheapness when compared with other motive powers.

In city life the possibilities are paramount, two of the greatest being that of transporting freight and merchandise and that of passenger locomotion. In London and Paris the motor omnibus is rapidly taking the place of the horse-drawn buses, and statistics show that passengers prefer riding on them, and further that the annual statements in several cases show a good profit, notwithstanding the imperfections of the design. A further step in this passenger transportation is the introduction this year, in these cities, of motor cabs fitted with taximeters that measure the distance and indicate the fare charged. These cabs with capacity for two or three passengers are now being manufactured in lots of one thousand each by several makers, and the demand is for more, their brief life proving conclusively that they are cheaper for the user than horse cabs, and are better revenue producers as well for the owner. The humanitarian side of these vehicles appears prominently as they stand in long lines outside of the theaters during a performance, as they wait outside of a restaurant in the cold weather, or line the street curbs in front of the fashionable stores and business centers.

The most surprising use to which the motor car has been put in Paris is that of a funeral car, a rôle in which its work already has met with approval due to the long distances to interment centers and the slow pace set by horses, coupled with the difficulty experienced by motorists in following the pace. The motor hearse is a modest, unpretentious vehicle, capable of speeds from one to forty miles per hour, and is noiseless in operation. In this connection reference is in place to its utility in ambulance service, not only in cities abroad but in many of the American centers. In this work the electric car took precedence, but the improvement in gasoline motors has resulted in the introduction of this type of vehicle, which shares the honor with steam machines. Recently the German government installed a complete motor ambulance outfit for its army, and for a couple of seasons the motor ambulance has been in attendance at the maneuvers of the American army, where its work received the approval of the superior officers in charge.

In municipal services the motor wagon is waging a conquering campaign. Street sprinklers are common abroad; street car lines employ motor wagons in

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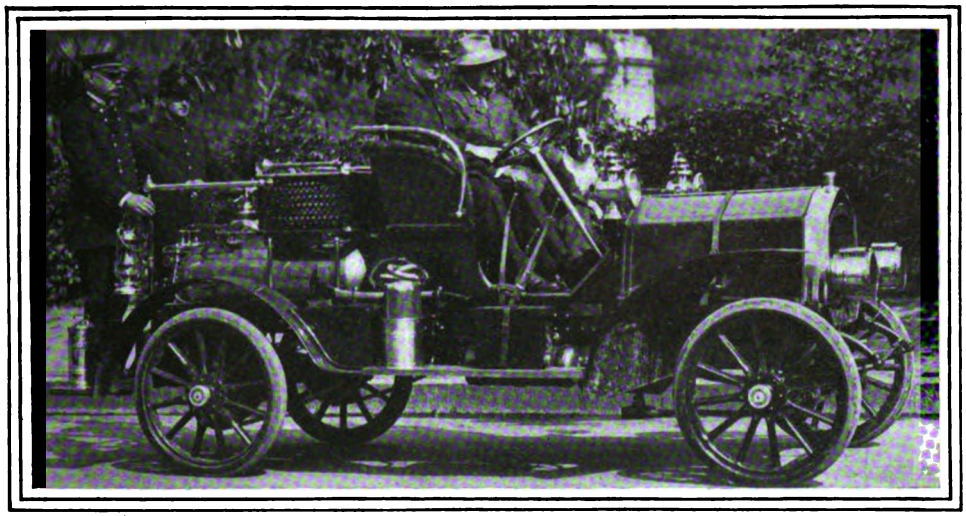
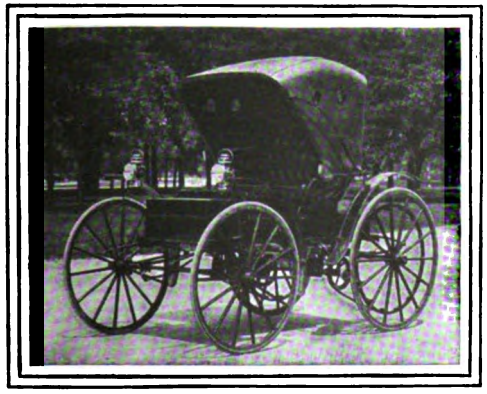


A MOTOR CHEMICAL WAGON IN THE FIRE DEPARTMENT OF BOSTON

The motor wagon with a speed three times that of horses reaches fires in a corresponding shorter time, thereby diminishing fire losses

their repair department; street inspectors travel in light runabout machines; heads of departments are similarly equipped; and in fire departments the chiefs and men are taken to the scene of the fire in motor machines. In this respect America is forging ahead: Boston has a motor chemical wagon, also a hose wagon; and Springfield, Massachusetts, uses similar vehicles. There is at present a couple of self-propelled fire-engines in use in the East, and makers of these engines testify to a growing demand for them. In Germany and Austria the motor fire-engine has been in use for four years, and the annual statements where these are in use show a remarkable saving, due primarily to the fact that idle motor wagons are not consuming fuel, whereas horses must be fed at all times. No field of municipal service offers more fruitful ground than this: the motor wagon with a speed three times that of horses reaches fires in a corresponding shorter time, thereby diminishing fire losses.



THE HIGH-WHEELED GASOLINE MOTOR CAR

It is especially adapted to muddy country roads.

Closely allied to the fire department is its use in police forces, in which it has for a couple of years, in American cities, proved what a time-saving medium it is; how much cheaper it is to operate, and how generally it is a success. Here, as in the fire department, time is everything. In Chicago the South Park Board has made use of cars for several seasons, the park superintendent, his assistant and the captain of the police requiring them daily, and going all of their rounds in them. Without them it would be impossible with any number of horse relays to cover the one hundred and five miles necessary in a daily inspection of all of the parks, as a horse could not for one single hour maintain the pace required to cover this distance in the time allotted to the officials for transacting their business. Innumerable private concerns employing inspectors, whose duties take them to the four corners of large cities each day, have adopted the motor car as the only remedy for the situation, and in New York and Chicago the Edison company makes use of it for

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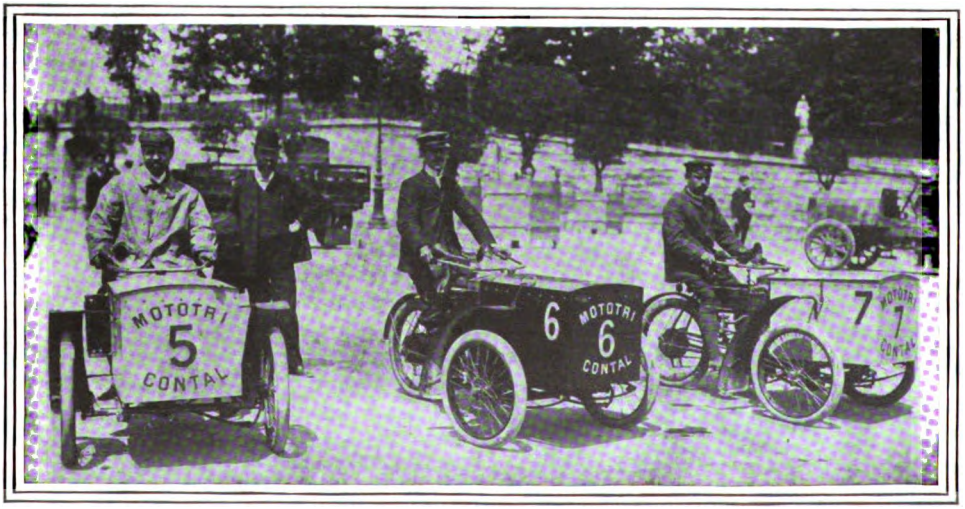
AN ELECTRIC TRUCK USED IN ST. LOUIS

distributing lamp carbons, globes and general supplies.

In the industrial realm the business car has found instant success abroad, wherever roads and streets are in perfect condition; but in American cities, where streets are often miniature giant's causeways of cedar blocks, broken bricks or cobblestones, the advancement has not been so pronounced owing to excessive cost of tires, the depreciation of the machine due to excessive vibration at speeds of twelve and sixteen miles per hour, and the consequent short life of them. Where conditions are fair the returns from business wagons is such that the price of the machine is saved in a couple of seasons, and the gain to the owner through the speed with which the work is done and the resultant increase to his business, can not be overlooked. Every phase of the commercial world has welcomed these machines. Factories use them, wholesale firms find them econo-



A FRENCH MOTOR TRI-CAR DELIVERY BRIGADE

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mizers, retail houses through their use can effect speedier deliveries, postoffices are introducing them in city and rural free delivery work, physicians have tested them for years, breweries soon found in them excellent distributing mediums and good advertising propositions, and dealers in light goods, where quick service is demanded, learned early their value.

With such unparalleled progress in the first twelve years of its existence; with it already competing with horses in every field of transportation and competing with electricity and steam in many departments of work, the possibilities of the motor car are unlimited. The only hampering restrictions in America are poor roads and streets and the consequent cost of tires. In a few cities abroad the exorbitant price of gasoline proved for a time a hindrance, but this was overcome by the introduction of denatured alcohol. In every land the efficiency of the car will increase as its motor is perfected, and all other parts receive that improvement that must come with the passage of years. Its introduction lessens street congestion — that embarrassing problem of cities — because the car occupies less space than horse machines, carries double and treble their loads, and moves at a pace twice as fast. The wear on street surfaces is less, the rubber tire producing none of the evil results of the hammering of the horse's shoe; and, incidentally, from a sanitary viewpoint, the vehicle is vastly superior to those drawn by horses.

PLOWING WITH A GASOLINE MOTOR

What the first quarter of the present century will show in this unprecedented march of progress can not be predicted, but ever reasoning that "the roots of the future are found in the present," it is a conservative prophecy to state that by that time some of our largest cities will be largely dominated by horseless machines and that the horse will be retained in those spheres to which he is more suited and in which his life is rid of the torture of eking out an existence on stone and brick streets. By that time many of the larger farms in the central and middle West will have acknowledged the prowess of the agricultural motor; the mining region will have profited by its introduction; suburban life in cities will have increased tenfold, without any of the distresses of crowded and poorly ventilated street cars; our country roads will have been immeasurably improved, thanks to the motor car; and years will have been saved by the speedy transportation made possible by it.

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THE ELEVATED RAILWAY AND CIVIC BEAUTY

BY

ERNEST C. MOSES

WHATEVER other influence the military establishment of the German empire may exert on the national character and industry of its peoples, the habitual discipline, respect for constituted authority and obedience to law thereby popularized, have encouraged a far higher regard for civil ordinance and order than we find manifested in America.

It is because of these influences that Berlin has become one of the most beautiful cities of the world. Its laws for the establishment and preservation of its handsome parks, public gardens and thoroughfares are uniformly enforced. Obedience to their provisions is expected and received from individuals, associations and corporate interests alike. The grafting propensity of human nature may have clasped its leeching tentacles upon the municipal affairs of the German capital, but it is rarely to be detected in the pavements, curbings, adornments of its streets, or in public utilities like its street railways.

Berlin has a finely equipped system of electric surface car lines, which are maintained with a higher regard for public comfort, convenience and private rights than any which the writer has ever seen in America. In addition to these, the city has been provided during the past decade with a new system of elevated railways, which is so thoroughly dignified and artistic in its structure and equipment that it constitutes an object lesson for the citizens of our own great commonwealth, and particularly for the corporate interests which own valuable franchises for maintaining such public utilities.

Comparisons are never odious when they are instituted to encourage progress. A consideration of the accompanying views should suggest some better models of excellence in elevated transit roadways.

Without doubt the new elevated electric railway in Berlin is the most artistic and most thoroughly constructed roadway of its kind in the world to-day. This road is owned by the Gesellschaft für Elektriche Hoch und Untergrundbahnen (Electric Elevated and Underground Railway Company), whose elevated and subway lines extend from Warschauer Brücke (Warsaw Bridge) to Wilhelm Platz, a distance of 12,141 meters or seven and one-half miles.

The line extends through the central portion of the city from east to west, beginning at the Zoölogical Garden, and proceeds underground past the Kaiser Wilhelm Gedachtniss Kirche to Nollendorf Platz, at which point the line comes out of the ground and is elevated on an iron and stone structure. The road then continues through various streets and crosses the River Spree, returning thence to Warschauer Brücke. Of the elevated portion about one thousand yards is in masonry structure and arches, and the balance, about eight thousand yards, is constructed of steel viaducts and bridges, making a total of about five miles of elevated roadway.

The final concession to build the road was not granted until March, 1896. The construction of this line was commenced on September 10 of that year and was completed to a point of running passenger trains on February 18, 1902. The total cost of the plant was about 35,000,000 marks, or nearly $9,000,000. The highest speed of the trains is fifty kilometers per hour (31¼ miles), while the ordinary rate of transit is thirty kilometers per hour (18¾ miles).

The stations are generally symmetrical

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THE BERLIN ELEVATED ROAD STATION AT NOLLENDORF PLATZ

It is attractive and symmetrical in appearance, with excellent provision for the comfort and convenience of passengers

in appearance, resting on heavy pedestals of carved masonry, which are substantial and imposing. The elevated approaches on both sides of the stations are handsomely bracketed and guarded by elaborate hand-rails. The ascending entrances are thoroughly constructed and enclosed, and the train-house is likewise enclosed, with ample provision for lighting by high windows. Excellent provisions for the comfort and convenience of the passengers during inclement seasons have been made in all the stations of the Berlin road. In these respects all the American lines are far behind the European models.

The stations of this system average about two thousand feet apart. They are usually about 250 feet long, with at least one-half of the platform covered, and all the stairways are similarly protected. The stations are mainly composed of a train-shed, staircase and ticket-office; no waiting rooms are included. No two of the stations are architecturally alike.

The smallest radius of curves in the Berlin line is eighty meters and the heaviest gradient, aside from the descent at Nollendorf Platz, is 1.38. It is notable that every angle in the supports and in the braces of the iron structure has been softened and made attractive to the eye. Every portion of the side railings, posts and pickets, and of the overhanging cornice work under the side railings, has been designed and erected with a view to making the structure symmetrical and even ornamental. The view of the Möckern Brücke Station also shows the particu-

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THE MOCKERN BRIDGE STATION, BERLIN

The ironwork is artistic and the columns are set in globular socket foundations to provide for expansion and contraction

THE STATION AT HALLESCHES THOR, BERLIN, WITH ITS PROTECTED TRAIN HOUSE

Note the ornamental bronze figures of flying wheels and wings

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lar care which has been exercised in concentrating strength in the iron supporting posts, and thus avoiding the ungainly appearance of the square latticed supports so commonly used in some of the American elevated structures. As illustrated in this view, and wherever necessary to allow for expansion and contraction of the iron work, the upright supports are set in globular foundation sockets, which permit a uniformly free play to the ankles of the supports.

distance pedestrians. Some of the spans of the steel viaduct, as at Hallescher Ufer, are more than one hundred feet long. One of the conditions imposed by the Berlin authorities was that these spans should clear the street level at a uniform distance of fifteen feet at all crossings.

In the construction of the Berlin elevated roadway particular care was exercised to prevent an excessive vibration of the ironwork, with its consequent noise. The rails were laid on the girders of the

THE PROMENADE UNDER THE ELEVATED ROAD ON BULOW STRASSE
The structure is watertight and makes an arcade for pedestrians

Particular pains have been taken to make the ground vistas and overhead appearance of the Berlin road endurable and fairly attractive. The principal street crossings are constructions of extra substantial character, usually with four great stone pedestals which support the iron trestle where it bridges the street. The graceful curves of the iron girders and stay brackets as seen from below are very pleasing. The structure above is watertight, so that a promenade arcade is formed under the entire road-bed for the accommodation and protection of short-

structure without the use of sleepers, and a filling of pumice-stone and cement with gravel was used to deaden the sound. As a consequence the Berlin road is relatively very noiseless in operation. In this respect much is yet to be accomplished on the American lines, and particularly in the Chicago loop, to give them a grasp on public good-will, which is bound to be reflected in all corporation balance sheets.

The owners of the Berlin elevated road are now extending its structure and tracks to the suburbs known as West End and Grunewald, and are also erecting a

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CHATHAM SQUARE STATION AND JUNCTION OF THE
A typical instance of the irregular and

loop through the heart of the city, from which, in time, additional branches will be extended to several other outlying districts.

The views here presented of the American elevated structures may seem to disparage our own institutions, but, if the writer was in the least inclined to limit the possibilities of American achievements in elevated transportation to the conditions of to-day, these views would never be published. They are presented because there is good reason to believe that a public spirit exists in the cities of America (though at present somewhat dormant) sufficient to furnish to the world models of public conveyance which will yet rival even those of beautiful Berlin. Some of our cities which have been compelled to meet the difficulties of public transportation are, like Chicago, still in their youth and should not be harshly judged by the ungainliness of their rapid growth.

In America four great cities are now extensively provided with elevated rail-

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MANHATTAN ELEVATED RAILROAD, NEW YORK CITY
ungainly ironwork on American elevated roads

ways, namely: New York, Brooklyn, Boston and Chicago. The structures and equipment utilized for this purpose in these cities now represent a total cost of about $250,000,000, and the total trackage, including sidings, foots up to about 310 miles. In these four cities it is estimated that about five hundred million passengers annually ride on these railways. In 1877 — thirty years ago — a little over three million passengers were served in one year by one line in New York city. Consequently it is seen that the development of elevated rapid transit has been rapid and noteworthy in America.

It should also be remembered when comparing the elevated roads of foreign cities with those of America that America has, for the most part, furnished the field for experiments. Particularly in New York and Chicago the problems of right-of-way, public coöperation, capital investment and earnings have been solved by initial experiments, which have established the practicability of elevated tran-

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sit as a factor in the development of large communities. The world has keenly watched these evolutions, and noted results, and thus Berlin, Vienna and other European cities have secured practical information in regard to the financial, political and engineering considerations involved. Having gained so much from the foundations laid in America it is indeed most fitting that any advance in the artistic and engineering features of elevated roadways brought out in Berlin should be reflected back to America. None but those who have blazed the way for these enterprises can describe the difficulties encountered by the American pioneers in elevated road promotion and construction, in the problems of preliminary surveys, prospective patronage, route layouts, right-of-way, capital and politics.

From an old woodcut, by courtesy of Harper & Bros.

THE FIRST ELEVATED RAILWAY IN THE UNITED STATES
Erected in Greenwich Street, New York City, in 1867

In America about the first attempt to work out the rapid-transit problem by elevated roadways was in the building of an experimental road in Greenwich Street in New York city. Mr. Charles T. Harvey was the originator of about the first promising design, and in 1866, mainly through his instrumentality, a company was formed under the name of the "West Side and Yonkers Patent Railway Company" to test his plan. The trains were to be operated by an endless wire cable. The road was constructed one-half mile north on Greenwich Street and was opened to the public in July, 1867. It was finally extended as far north as Thirtieth Street, but the wire rope scheme of propulsion was soon abandoned. The experiment was unsuccessful ana the road was finally sold under foreclosure in 1872 to the New York Elevated Railway Company. The structure was strengthened, engines were substituted for the cable, and trains were run regularly. The traffic so rapidly increased in the Greenwich Street line that from carrying six hundred and forty thousand passengers in 1873 its service increased to three million one hundred and fifty thousand in 1877.

The subsequent development of the elevated road idea in America was largely the product of the need for rapid transit in New York city, which occupies a long and narrow island upon which building development depended particularly on

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making the extremes of its twenty-five-mile limits quickly accessible. In 1875 the first rapid transit commission was appointed, and for the needs of the city the commission decided that the facilities of transportation could then only be augmented by elevated roadways. Shortly after the Gilbert Company and the New York Elevated Railway Company were chartered and commenced the erection of iron highways on the east and west sides. These companies were consolidated in 1879, and the Sixth Avenue line was opened from Rector Street to Central Park in June, 1878; the Third Avenue line was opened from the Battery to Forty-second Street August 26, 1878. In 1880 all the lines running on Second, Third, Sixth and Ninth Avenues were completed to Harlem.

At present the elevated system in New York city proper is owned by the Manhattan Railway Company, which is controlled by the Interborough Rapid Transit Company. The Manhattan Company owns all the elevated lines in the boroughs of Manhattan and The Bronx, with a trackage of one hundred and eighteen miles. The total cost of the road and its equipment to 1906 was $89,787,564, and the total number of passengers carried for the last complete year recorded in Moody's Manual was 266,381,930.

STATION AT DEARBORN AND VAN BUREN STREETS, CHICAGO
One of the unattractive downtown loop structures

In the Brooklyn Borough of Greater New York the elevated lines are owned by the Brooklyn Union Elevated Railroad, which is controlled by the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company. Including sidings this line operates 68.83 miles of trackage. The Brooklyn road and its equipments represent a total cost of $45,076,315, according to Poor's latest Manual. The various lines of this road connect the Brooklyn and Williamsburg bridges with the Bay Ridge Parkway section in the southern limits, also the eastern districts, including Flatlands and East New York, serving all sections naturally tributary to Fulton Street, Broadway, Myrtle, Third and Fifth Avenues.

In Boston there are only about six and one-half miles of double track elevated lines which, with sidings, make up a total of only about sixteen miles of trackage. This line is owned by the Boston Elevated Railway Company, which also controls the

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vast network of street railways formerly operated by the West End Street Railway Company and also the Rapid Transit subway. The elevated road connects with the subway and forms a loop in the center of the city. It runs from Dudley Street in Roxbury to Sullivan Square in Charleston. The track structures in narrow streets are poised on single column supports with connecting steady trusses. In wide streets the plate cross girder construction is utilized, which spreads out in ungainly fashion.

Very little improvement is noticeable in the Boston line over the construction of the older American lines. The last record of annual operations recorded in Poor's Manual show that 7,004,579 passengers started their trips at elevated stations, but this number does not represent the entire traffic, as the company cares for about two hundred and fifty million passengers annually, a large majority of whom ride on the elevated, transfer to and from the surface and subway lines without paying additional fare and usually without giving even a transfer check. The Boston elevated line is now in process of extension to the south, to a point known as Forest Hills, a distance of two and one-quarter miles. Plans have also been made for another extension from North Station across Charles River to Leechmere Square in Cambridge.

The idea of elevated railway transit has been more extensively applied in Chicago than in any city of the world, as far as structure and trackage is concerned. There are nearly 110 miles of trackage, including sidings, under operation in that city. The total cost of the structures and equipment now amounts to about $90,000,000, and the annual carriage of passengers is estimated to be about one hundred and fifteen millions.

The four separate lines are owned and operated by four corporations known as the South Side Elevated Railroad Company, the Metropolitan West Side Elevated Railway Company, the Chicago and Oak Park Elevated Railroad Company, and the Northwestern Elevated Railroad Company. All of these roads circle through the center of the city in a square loop of nearly two miles length, originally erected by the Union Elevated Railroad Company. The entire capital stock of that company was purchased a few years since by the Northwestern Company, which is now the sole owner of the loop,

THE ELEVATED LOOP ON WABASH AVENUE, CHICAGO

A specimen of the art ironwork suspended in the center of the thoroughfare

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over which the other lines have leased privileges.

The views herewith presented of the various American lines illustrate one characteristic which is common to all of them: the ungainly appearance of the iron structures which are often particularly uncouth at the street corners and points of deflection from the normal straight line. In many of these points the American elevated road structures are monstrosities. This is notably so in the case of the Chicago loop, which is utilized as turning points for the two lines coming into the heart of the city from the north and south, and the two lines from the western suburbs. The loop structures on Wabash Avenue at the corner of Lake Street, and the corner of Harrison Street, reach the limit of inartistic abandon. Viewed northward on Wabash Avenue from below Harrison the structure has the appearance of a great "daddy long legs," *couchant*. Appearances do not seem to have been considered from any viewpoint of artistic symmetry whatever.

The writer is not informed in regard to the methods pursued in designing the road structures of the various American elevated lines, and in meeting the difficult engineering problems. One needs no precise engineering education to recognize, so far as Chicago is concerned, that the erection of an elevated road down through the center of a wide park-way like the Nollendorf Platz in Berlin offers opportunities for liberal treatment not found in narrow Wabash Avenue or Van Buren Street.

Whether improvements are to come in American cities through corporate or municipal ownership will depend upon which method is the more practical. The solution of all such problems lies in a better citizenship. When each citizen is more ready to do that which is best for his neighbor and for himself, we may expect to witness more loyalty to art in our public utilities. A clean citizenship will evolve a beautiful municipality,—"the walks of the township are clean when each man cares for his own doorstep."

THE YOUNG MAN IN POLITICS

BY

SHERBURN M. BECKER

MAYOR OF MILWAUKEE

I WANT to give the young man contemplating a public career a few words of advice, based upon my own experience of nearly five years of public office:

Make up your mind to be honest and fair, both in business and in politics.

Work nine-tenths of the time, and when occasion requires, work the other tenth.

You can enjoy yourself with hard work if you will but think so.

Work is the best thing for every young man; idleness is the greatest evil and breeds dishonesty and corruption.

Make up your mind, when you accept a public trust, that you represent all the people, not only those who have by their votes chosen you as such, but those who have opposed you and who, perhaps, misunderstand you and your purposes.

Do not, under any circumstances, allow prejudice to swerve you from your best judgment.

Have a platform short and pointed.

Be sure it is right and stand upon it to the end.

Do not readily take sides in controversies.

Think fast and try to be quick in your responses in emergencies.

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Do something all the time, but in your ambition to do something, don't do things that count for naught.

Have as many ideas to develop as you possibly can at one time; still, possess yourself of as much concentration as possible.

Finish your work as you go along.

Always keep in mind the fact that you are the servant and not the master, no matter what position you may fill in the service of the public.

Steer clear of classes and take the hand of the masses at all times. Associate with as many good people as you can find.

Extend your acquaintanceship every day. Make it a point never to retire for the night without being able to say: To-day I have made a new friend; to-day has been a success even though in a minor matter.

Never know or recognize the word "fail." You will fail, and fail badly sometimes, but "pass it up" as quickly as you can.

Do not hesitate to put the stamp of disapproval upon bad legislation, no matter if it be unanimously passed.

A young man taking public office must be possessed of great discretion. He will be compelled to listen to advice from all sorts of people who profess, honestly or otherwise, to have his personal interests at stake. Use great care in the selection of your advisers, and do not take anything for granted. Know your men well before you select them, if they are to be intimately associated with you, and then give them your whole and undivided confidence. You must trust some one, and you must depend upon some one for advice, otherwise your career will come to an early and untimely end. If you start out to "run things" your own way, without consulting men who have experience and ability, there is only one result and that is failure, and failure of the worst kind.

Do not worry. "Worry" is a bad disease. Just sit down and put on your thinking cap, and before you think many times you will decide to go to that man or to those men in whom you have implicit confidence, for assistance. Talk things over with them, reach a conclusion and go ahead. Don't you see, young man, that you have learned something when you have done this? Don't you see that you have made progress as a public man? The next time you are confronted with the same situation you will have this added information in your storehouse of knowledge.

I can recommend this recipe for I have used it and am proud of it.

There has grown up a class known as "The Idle Rich." This includes a vast army of young men who devote their time wholly to pleasure. They produce nothing. They just live. I am glad to know, however, that there has been an awakening among this class and that some of them have begun to feel the very insignificant positions that they occupy on earth and that they have determined to go to work.

There is no reason in the world why people should not be rich, but every man, no matter how rich, should be a producer of something that will be of benefit to his fellow men.

The young man who devotes his time wholly to pleasure is sure as eternity to be an old man long before he should be. The man who tries to live without working and without accomplishing something is a bad example and a menace to society. It is not a kind father who brings up his son to live in idleness.

There are, among my acquaintanceship, many highly educated and naturally honorable young men who pride themselves that they have never earned a dollar and who have no thought or worry of what the morrow may bring forth.

I do not wish to be understood as advocating as a cure-all for this evil a recourse to the digging of ditches or firing a locomotive, although I do believe that a course of treatment of this kind would be effective in many cases. What I do mean is that every young man should devote a liberal share of his time to some occupation, whether it produce him money or not. If he has all the money he needs then let him give his services to some charitable calling.

There is a wide field for work of this kind. No church on earth has enough of such assistance. Young men of wealth should familiarize themselves with the affairs of their community and of their country and in this way make themselves

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useful. It ought to be interesting to every young man to feel that his opinion and assistance are sought in laudable public undertakings.

The idle rich young man, with proper training, has great opportunities in all the honorable professions: the church, medicine, the law, the newspaper office, literature, art, as well as in the world of commerce. If he will identify himself with any one of these vocations he will be producing something and will be a working man in every sense that the word implies.

The man who shovels in the street or plows in the field is not the only producer and he is not the only man who toils. Any man who succeeds in the professional or commercial world does so by unceasing toil.

I am not in sympathy with "Parlor Socialism," nor any other kind of socialism which contemplates the utter overthrow of our present form of government.

There is great room for reform, but we are growing better every day. Let us not be led astray by the more or less attractive pleadings and arguments of theorists who talk of revolutions. These things come to us principally through the agency of men who have made a failure of life in some country other than our own, and who would be dissatisfied, I believe, no matter what the conditions might be.

Some time ago there came to Milwaukee a young "Parlor Socialist," Joseph Medill Patterson, who informed his hearers in a public address that he had been idle for years; that he produced nothing, and that he had no object in life except to spend the money earned by labor and which did not rightfully belong to him.

When I read his address in a paper I felt like saying to him, "Go to work — you have the ability and you are needed — stop talking and do something. Get out of the parlors of the rich if you think you belong somewhere else. Practice what you preach and you will have an object in life. Open a factory. If the theory of your recent address be correct, venture your wealth in business. Employ labor, pay it wages and conduct the enterprise for yourself."

Now I am told that he is to take a course in agriculture and raise cabbages and turnips, perhaps.

I believe that this young man means well, that he is honest and sincere, but that he is not the kind of man who makes a success of farming. He has, I understand, the advantages of a college education and the good breeding that goes with it. He was trained in the school of journalism and is an able correspondent and reporter.

Then, why should he go to the farm to milk cows or sow grain?

Why can not he do good in the world with his pen? He can produce something with that better than he can produce something with the plow or the corn-planter. But he probably imagines that he must do manual labor, and toil with calloused hands.

He is mistaken. We need intelligent young men in intellectual pursuits to help guide us in the right direction. We need brains as well as muscle, and we must have them.

I haven't much use for the young man, or the old man either, for that matter, who starts out when elected to office, to reform the world. There are too many men now in this country, in office and out of office, who believe that everything that is, is wrong, and who have a remedy — usually a political nostrum — for every ill or imagined ill that the dear public is suffering from. While recognizing the false position of him who contends that "What is, is right," I still feel that affairs are not in such a terrible state.

Too many young men taking office think that they have been chosen to do things that are really impracticable or impossible, and in their eagerness to shine they rush on to ruin. There is no place in the world to-day for the visionary or impractical reformer.

I know a number of great reformers who, when carefully investigated, prove to be not altogether what they pretend to be, they are reformers for revenue. They talk too much, mostly about the wickedness of some one who has gained a reputation for honesty and ability.

Pessimism should be discouraged instead of popularized. There are too many bright things to look at to warrant grant-

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ing much time to listening to men who see only evil before them.

While I have been of some service to the people, whom I represent, or have represented, in the matter of unearthing and exposing corruption, still I am happy to say that in making my investigations I have come across a great deal more goodness and honor than evil and dishonor. Most men holding public office are not corrupt, so far at least as I have been able to discover in five years of public life. I know not a few men who have sacrificed business and pleasure, and neglected even their families, that they might assist in doing some good for their community.

It will take a good deal of argument to convince me that there is a large percentage of dishonesty or corruption in America. We are altogether too willing, usually, to listen to bad reports and unwilling to hear of the good things that are done by our public servants. This is, I presume, one of the natural frailties of mankind.

Politics has been an unsavory business in many ways, I admit, but it can and will be dignified and brought up to its proper plane if the young men of the country will arise, go to the front, demand recognition and discharge the duties of their offices when they have them.

NEW CHINA

BY

THOMAS F. MILLARD

AUTHOR OF "THE NEW FAR EAST"

THE Oriental world is today stirred by new forces, which manifest themselves, in some instances, in ways calculated to cause the West to wonder at their probable outcome. So much is clear to all those who are keeping in touch with events in the Far East. The last of Oriental nations to set out upon the path of modern progress, China, being the greatest of them all, will eventually afford the solution to the great propositions involved. The ultimate fate of the Orient, in comparison with the West, will be the fate of China. No doctrine of pan-Orientalism can ever succeed without her support, since from her it must draw its chief strength.

Any examination of the internal forces now operating in the empire has, therefore, more than the casual interest always attached to a spectacle of human evolution, and they are worthy of study. It is becoming the habit to lump these new activities in China under the phrase "Reform Movement," a term which aptly describes the general situation. This movement, now under such an impetus that it is stirring the life forces of the nation, takes innumerable shapes; but all these shapes may be roughly classified under three headings: educational, political, and military.

It is probable that the new educational movement is the more far-reaching in its possible effects, since it directly or indirectly touches and influences all effort toward change. Modern schools are not new in China. Missionary schools and colleges have been maintained for many years, and even the Chinese government has frequently taken steps to create a better system in the universities. But until within the last two or three years these moves have been hesitating and half-hearted, the government being chiefly influenced by pressure from without. Now it is entirely different. The stimulus is beginning to be felt from within. The Chinese are rapidly coming to realize the benefits to be derived from a modern education.

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Heretofore Chinese who desired a modern education have been compelled to go abroad, and they have gone in constantly increasing numbers. It is estimated that there are now about sixteen thousand Chinese students abroad, of which over eleven thousand are in Japan. Formerly Europe and America were the places where the young Chinese went, and many still do so; but a great majority now go to Japan, on account of the low cost of living there for Orientals in comparison with western countries. Chinese parents who can afford the expense still prefer to send their sons to America or Europe, but a course of education in Japan is within the reach of tens of thousands of boys who could never hope to get further abroad. But there remain the hundreds of thousands who are unable to get even to Japan, and they are demanding facilities at home.

The widespread desire of the youth of China to acquire a modern education is, in my opinion, the most significant manifestation of the reform movement. Its full effect will not be felt for many years, but this influence is already quite a power. Schools are being opened in all parts of the country. An interesting point is that these new schools, which are as yet chiefly supported by private subscription, are backed and usually maintained by the gentry of the various localities where they have been established. Ten years ago in China, the establishment of such schools would have been opposed by the greater part of the gentry, and, of course, by the officials. But as the views of the gentry change, the official class will be compelled to meet them, and reaction becomes more and more difficult. A few days ago a prominent Chinese, who was educated in the United States and is a progressive, in lamenting the obstructions which are constantly met in efforts toward reform, said to me:

"The elder high officials at Peking, while pretending to be for general reform, are not really so at heart. They really deplore the present tendency, and will retard it as much as they can. Not until many of the prominent metropolitan officials are removed, either by loss of influence or death, will the government take up reform sincerely. At present they are only 'bluffing' at it."

In his discouragement this Chinese apparently failed to see that his comment constituted a striking evidence of the real progress of reform. A few years ago the official class would not have felt it necessary even to pretend to advocate reform, but would have bitterly and openly opposed it. And this change is not entirely the result of outside influence. The high officials care little for outside influence in matters of internal administration. The only influence that can move them there is Chinese influence, or, in other words, the pressure of popular opinion.

It is true that there is no popular opinion in China to-day, as the phrase is understood in America. But the more intelligent and influential classes are beginning very rapidly to realize that reform is necessary in many directions, and the officials will be compelled to listen to them. China is really a great democracy, and whatever the people seriously want they will get. This attitude of the most prominent class of citizens has enormous weight with the masses, which, in their present state of political development, can be led like a flock of sheep, especially along unfamiliar paths. I am inclined to think that the obstacles to reform in China are exaggerated by most commentators, who do not fully realize the strength of the new forces at work.

Nevertheless, many things now advocated by the reform party are impossible of accomplishment for generations; in fact, might prove very disastrous, such as the movement for a constitutional form of government. But think of constitutional government being openly discussed in China, and to an extent that the government has been compelled to pacify the agitation by sending commissioners abroad to study such institutions in other countries.

The agitation for a change in government is confined almost entirely to the students. This term now has a new meaning in China. In former days the scholars, or students, were opposed to any change, and still are. Nowadays by "students" are meant young Chinese who are being educated abroad, or are receiving a modern education at home. With all the enthusiasm of youth, these young men are taking up the cry for reform, and making

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old China ring with it. The cry has even penetrated the thick walls of the Forbidden City, where sits the reactionary court. In adopting a battle cry these students show political acumen far beyond their experience, which holds promise for the future under intelligent direction. Their slogan is "Young China," thus reversing the usual adjective applied to the empire; and this cry is stirring sensibilities in the people long thought to be dormant or dead. Those who sneer at the so-called "students" are blind to much of significance in China to-day.

I had a talk recently with Tsao-fu-kun, a young Chinese who accompanied one of the high commissions which recently visited America to observe conditions there, and particularly to study constitutional government, and in the course of a chat he expressed some very interesting views. Tsao is a graduate of Vanderbilt University at Nashville, Tennessee, where he won a prize for oratory.

"I am, of course, in favor of reform for China," he said, "but much of the present agitation is misdirected and will accomplish nothing definite. In my opinion it is foolish to advocate a constitutional government for China at present. The forces do not now exist in China to operate such a government. China must learn to walk before she tries to run, else she will get a bad fall. At present many foolish matters are advocated by the students. We must get a good educational system, reform our administration, and lay the foundation of an intelligent public opinion before we begin to think about demolishing the empire. At present we would have nothing with which to replace it. We have plenty of work ahead, for instance, in procuring a modern educational organization.

"It is true that there are many evidences of progress in China, but the actual results are so far utterly insignificant compared to the length of the road that stretches ahead. China is like a child with a new doll. The child will run about showing its doll to every one: but presently it will tire of it and cast it aside, turning to something else. Reform is just now China's new doll. We have made a beginning here and there, and are so proud of these slight signs of progress that we must exhibit them to all who will look. As soon as we realize that they are nothing much after all, we may settle down to accomplish something serious. But I feel hopeful and encouraged by some of the results of the visits abroad of the high commissioners. A young Chinese, who is being educated in America and who accompanied the commission on its journey and returned with it, announced when we reached Shanghai that he would remain there and would not come on to Peking. His Excellency Duke Tsi heard of this, and sent for the young man.

"'Why are you not coming to Peking?' he said.

"'I have only European clothes,' the young man replied, 'and could not call upon my friends or high officials dressed as I am without exciting comment and ridicule.'

"'Never mind that,' His Excellency replied, 'come along as you are, and I will answer for the consequences.'

"When I heard this," said Mr. Tsao, "I was sorry that I had shaved my head and plaited on this false queue. I might have saved myself the trouble. Any one who knows China will realize the significance involved in the appearance of a Chinese at court in foreign dress. It is a sign of progress that I was hardly prepared for myself, and shows that what their excellencies observed abroad has made an impression."

This trivial incident is, indeed, a sign of the times. I am inclined to think that within a few years the reign of the "pigtail" will have ended. I mean, of course, not that all Chinese will presently cut off their queues and permit their hair to grow, but that individual Chinese can thus conform to occidental fashions in China without bringing ridicule upon themselves or attracting any special notice among their fellow countrymen. When that day arrives, the knell of the queue will be struck, and it is nearer than most people realize.

A great power in China is the new press, which, owing to extra-territorial conditions, is able to publish practically what it likes about governmental affairs. It exercises an enormous influence upon the popular mind, and under intelligent direction can be made a great force for progress. But its initial enthusiasm is

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expended largely along what are, in America, called "yellow" lines. It is probable, however, that this inclination will be curbed, and that there will be a reversion to more conservative methods; in fact this tendency may already be noticed, especially since widespread attention has been attracted to the native press and the influences which control a large section of it.

The government is paying more attention than ever before to aiding young Chinese to obtain an education abroad. For the last few years Japan has been preferred as a place to send the students, but of late certain revolutionary tendencies of the so-called "Japanese students," as Chinese educated in Japan are called, have somewhat alarmed the Chinese government. This may result in a greater proportion going to western countries, and of these many will go to America. Among the metropolitan officials, the most progressive and influential is Yuan Shih Kai, the viceroy of Chihli province. Yuan has surrounded himself with young men who have received a foreign education, and of these he has openly expressed a preference for those who were educated in America. Recently, in talking with an American official, Yuan is reported to have said:

"Of our young men who have been educated abroad, those who went to America are the best by far. I attribute this to the fact that nearly all our students in America have been received into American homes, where they have been surrounded by superior influences, and have imbibed high notions of integrity and moral conduct. Their tone is noticeably higher than that of the young men educated in Europe, and I wish it was possible for more to go to America."

The military phase of China's present progress has of late attracted much attention, because only this can make effective China's new aspirations to be master of her own destiny. Nearly all of the Powers sent military attachés to witness the maneuvers which Yuan Shih Kai had conducted last fall, and all seem to have been most favorably impressed. As I have always thought highly of the military capability of the Chinese, and have frequently expressed this opinion in print, the reports of the experts have not surprised me. There was never any sound reason for the belief that the Chinese have lost their military capacity. Of course, they, poorly armed and without competent leadership, could not cope with other modern military organizations; but with proper instructions and weapons they can give a good account of themselves against any foe. This is no longer open to reasonable doubt.

But Yuan Shih Kai's energy is creating a well-equipped and disciplined corps in the North, and the disposition of the central and southern viceroys to follow his example has less real significance than the alteration of public opinion in regard to military affairs. For centuries in China, the soldier has been looked upon with disfavor and contempt, and the ranks have been largely filled with the drainings of disorderly and reprehensible elements of the population. This condition is changing, evidences of a growing desire of the youth of the nation to learn something of modern military methods are to be seen everywhere. To-day there is hardly a school in China that has not a cadet organization, and the students are eager to enlist in them. The movement has already extended outside of the student body, and is affecting all classes of the younger generation.

Perhaps the most striking indication of this spirit is the organization in Shanghai of what is now called the Physical Culture Society. This is a military organization, pure and simple. It has a membership of several hundred, and its ranks are swelling more rapidly than the applicants can be accommodated. The organization, as yet, possesses no arms, but is uniformed in military style and regularly drilled in military maneuvering and exercises, in which a high proficiency has already been developed, although the society has existed only a few months. A full equipment of arms is under discussion, and will undoubtedly be provided. It is not surprising, under ordinary circumstances, that numbers of young men should take interest in military organizations, but in China it is an almost revolutionary move. Its effects upon the popular Chinese mind are very noticeable. The semi-weekly drills of the organization attract large crowds,

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and when it marches through the streets its advance is attended by demonstrations of popular approval verging upon enthusiasm. No person who knows the old China will dispute the importance of these popular signs, and one can scarcely fail to recognize in them the germs of a national military awakening.

China has roused from her long sleep, and it behooves western nations, particularly America, to take notice and act accordingly.

THE CAR FAMINE IN THE NORTHWEST

BY

JAMES LINN NASH

ALL over the great Northwest farming region elevators are today crammed to the roof with wheat, and many thousands of bushels of grain lie exposed in the open, where they have been dumped upon the ground to await shipment.

Why is all this? Has the scourge of famine, pestilence or financial panic passed over this section of the United States?

On the contrary the Northwest was never more prosperous. That, strange as it may seem, is one of the chief causes of its calamity.

Settlers have been pouring into the vast tracts of hitherto unoccupied land in Minnesota, and North and South Dakota; thousands of acres of vacant soil have been placed under cultivation; prosperous towns and villages have sprung up almost in a night. The railroads in mad haste have laid hundreds of miles of new trackage in vain effort to keep pace with the growth of the country, only to find that they lacked the cars and engines needed to meet the demands of traffic. They have economized too much in equipment, men and brains. The result is a great car famine and congestion of traffic with all its attendant evils.

This famine is not of mushroom growth. The conditions which have caused it have been developing for many months. In the fall of 1905 there were numerous complaints of a shortage of cars throughout the Northwest, and shipments were more or less delayed and business seriously hampered. Thus the railroads were given ample warning in time to remedy defects. But this warning they did not sufficiently heed.

Even during the middle of last summer, before the movement of grain and heavy fall shipments of merchandise commenced, the Soo, Great Northern and Northern Pacific had all the freight business they could conveniently handle, and railroad men confessed that they did not know what the railroads would do when the fall rush began. To those who were familiar with conditions it was then evident that there were breakers ahead. Before fall the northwestern railroads added a few cars and engines to their equipment, but the increase was not nearly sufficient to supply the demands.

As soon as the measureless fields of grain were harvested the trouble began.

The farmers brought their grain to the nearest town to market it as usual and in a short time the elevators were filled. Then came the long wait for freight cars.

Finally, in despair, the farmer dumped his untaken wheat on the ground at the side of the railroad track, feeling that he must at least return home with an empty wagon. There it has lain for many weeks waiting for the railroads to furnish the cars to carry it to the miller. Every day more wagonloads of wheat have been added to the pile until it has grown to prodigious proportions. At New Rockford, N. D., there is a mountainous heap of the cereal covering two blocks of ground and rising to a height of ten feet in many places. This pile now contains one hundred and twelve thousand bushels. At Litchville there are two piles of wheat

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and one of flax each sixty feet long, thirty feet wide and about ten feet high.

As these conditions continued the columns of the country newspapers were filled with accounts of the evil results of the car famine. Little heed was given to the plaints of the farmers, but when the big jobbers and wholesalers of the large distributing centers, the board of trade men in Minneapolis, Chicago and Duluth began to complain and a united protest arose from all over the Northwest, statesmen and politicians suddenly awoke to the fact that it was time to look into the conditions and seek for the causes and remedy. Accordingly the aid of the Interstate Commerce Commission was invoked and the investigation commenced.

Farmers, elevator men, bankers and stockraisers as well as railroad officials were called upon to tell what they knew of existing conditions. It was like a gathering of physicians called to give their opinions regarding the malady of a patient who was seriously ill.

The doctors disagreed. The shippers insisted that conditions were very bad and were daily growing worse. Some blamed the railroads for not having a sufficient supply of cars on hand, some said there were not engines enough to move the cars, some that there were plenty of cars and engines but they were not properly distributed; still others accused the railroads of employing incompetent help and of inefficient management. Many tales were told of towns where great quantities of grain were awaiting shipment and only one or two cars had been supplied during the entire fall. In other places strings of empties were standing idle on the tracks, while in the terminal yards at Duluth many cars had lain for a month unloaded.

Stockmen who accompanied their shipments of cattle and sheep to market told of long delays in transit due to frequent breakdowns, dead engines and exhausted train crews. One prominent banker of North Dakota who had sent out inquiries all over the state and had received over three hundred replies, estimated that up to December 1 but thirty-eight per cent of the wheat crop had been shipped, while twenty-three per cent lay in the elevators and thirty-nine per cent yet remained in the farmers' hands.

Congressman Marshall of North Dakota was emphatic in declaring that the great car famine was due not so much to an actual shortage of cars and engines as to faulty methods of handling the cars and lack of proper terminal facilities. His estimate based on a careful investigation of conditions was that during the months of September, October, November and the first half of December only sixty per cent as many cars had been received at non-competitive points as during the corresponding months of last year.

One very significant fact was brought out. It was shown that wherever two competing lines met there were plenty of cars to supply all needs.

The railroad officials for their part at first refused to acknowledge that there was anything wrong, but as the preponderance of evidence against them waxed greater, they were finally forced to admit that there was a scarcity of cars. General Superintendent Slade of the Great Northern had borrowed from other roads nearly ten thousand cars and had loaned only a little over six thousand, and yet had not nearly enough to supply the needs of shippers, while the Northern Pacific, which had borrowed fifteen thousand cars and loaned but nine thousand was in the same position. Naturally the railroad officials refused to acknowledge that there was any truth in the charges of incompetency on the part of railroad employees or inefficient management.

All the time this investigation into causes was going on, the car famine was growing worse and as winter settled down over the Northwest and the weather grew cold, the most serious phase of the situation developed in a shortage of fuel. Towns which had been unable to secure cars in which to ship their grain could not obtain a sufficient supply of coal to supply their needs. The people actually suffered for the want of fuel to keep them warm. Many farmers on the timberless prairies of the Dakotas, after using every lump of coal and every available stick of wood, tore down their outbuildings and fences and burned them in order to keep themselves and their families from freezing. Whenever a stray car of coal arrived there was a frantic rush to share its contents. In some cases the fuel was distributed in quarter ton

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lots to those who were most in need of it, in others it was doled out in still smaller quantities and people came carrying sacks and baskets to be filled.

The people waxed desperate. Piteous appeals for aid came pouring into the larger commercial centers from the smaller towns of the Dakotas and northern Minnesota. The citizens of one town demanded that the governors of Minnesota and North Dakota call out the militia and use military force in compelling the railroads to send them a sufficient supply of fuel.

Roused at last to a realization that something must be done to supply the necessities of a long-suffering people, who refused to suffer and passively submit any longer, the railroads began rushing coal from the head of the lakes to points where it was most needed. They gave fuel the preference over all other freight. Long trains containing nothing but coal and oil were pushed through with remarkable celerity, and in some cases cars loaded with coal were even attached to passenger trains.

Blizzards and snow blockades added to the difficulties which had to be overcome, and in some instances branch lines were tied up for several days. In spite of this the railroads managed to push through a supply of fuel sufficient to furnish temporary relief, giving an excellent illustration of what it was possible for them to accomplish in the way of accelerating shipments when they feel obliged to do so. That considerable more wheat is being shipped is evidenced by the fact that the amount of wheat received at Minneapolis in December was more than double that received in November, although the wheat shipments are still below the normal.

If the car shortage agitation and investigation bear no further fruit it has shown the people the necessity of adopting some means of compelling the railroads to make the welfare of the public paramount to the private interests of their stockholders.

REMAKING THE SENATE

BY

F. G. MOORHEAD

Proposals for amending the Constitution so that United States senators will be elected by popular vote, will come before thirty-seven state legislatures this winter. Should they find favor, the federal government would be radically changed. The extent of this movement as described by Mr. Moorhead will surprise any but specialists in contemporary politics.

INASMUCH as thirty-seven state legislatures will be in session during the coming winter, the Interstate Senatorial Convention, held in Des Moines the first week in December, is likely to be historical. Its executive committee will endeavor before spring to induce at least thirty-eight states to take action which will force Congress to call a convention for the purpose of formulating a constitutional amendment to be submitted to the states, providing for the election of United States senators by popular vote.

Congress having repeatedly failed to take the initiative in this matter, the desired constitutional amendment must be brought about, if at all, on petition of the states themselves. The Constitution provides that on application of two-thirds of the states a constitutional convention shall be called. Three-fourths of the states must ratify the amendment adopted by this convention before it can become a part of the Constitution. This means that thirty states must favor the movement and thirty-four must ratify the proposed amendment.

Already no less than twenty-four states —those mentioned as the ones which the

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executive committee should urge to renew and continue their efforts to bring about the change—are officially on record either as petitioning Congress to submit such an amendment or making application for the call of a constitutional convention. Four states, not included among the thirty which had accepted the invitation to be represented, are on record favoring the amendment, while three others are among the fifteen states of the union which already select their United States senators at direct primary elections, the legislators simply ratifying the action of the electors. This gives a total of thirty-seven states, three more than enough to ratify the proposed amendment.

Whether the constitutional convention will discuss and recommend any other amendments remains to be seen. At the Des Moines conference a Missouri delegate introduced a resolution providing for a change in the present method of choosing United States judges and a change in their tenure of office, "so that they can be chosen by direct vote of the people, to serve for a term of six years." The resolution was promptly tabled, the convention going on record as desiring only an amendment in regard to the election of United States senators.

Iowa is by no means the first state to take up this movement, of which Senator William A. Harris of Kansas once said: "No one can doubt the overwhelming character of the demand for popular election of senators. It is a demand which has been gradually growing, and with cumulative force for more than fifty years. It can not be considered a spasmodic or temporary whim, but an earnest and profound conviction based upon changes in both the manner and the results of our elections." Iowa is the sixth state of the union to make application to Congress for the calling of a constitutional convention. Michigan went on record in 1901. The same year Minnesota and Nevada took similar action. The following year Nebraska joined the ranks. In 1903 Oregon petitioned Congress, and in 1904 Iowa made itself heard. The following year the Montana legislature adopted a similar resolution, making seven states to urge Congress to action.

To this list must be added the seventeen other states which in the past twenty years have gone on record as petitioning Congress to submit to the states an amendment providing for directly elected senators. The list and the years in which action was taken follows: New Hampshire, 1886; Kentucky, 1892; Illinois, 1894; Wyoming, 1895; Ohio, 1896; Utah, 1897; Florida, 1898; Washington, 1899; North Dakota, 1899; North Carolina, 1899; Idaho, 1899; Tennessee, 1900; Pennsylvania, 1901; Indiana, 1901; Colorado, 1901; South Dakota, 1901; Kansas, 1905.

Agitation of a constitutional amendment has not been confined to the legislatures of the various states by any means. Four times the national House of Representatives has gone on record favoring the matter, the vote in 1900—yes, 240; no, fifteen—being a good expression of the sentiment in the House. The Senate has repeatedly refused to coöperate with the House or to heed the petitions of the states.

It is hardly necessary to recall the frequent deadlocks which have resulted in legislatures entrusted with the election of United States senators, a contingency entirely removed by the proposed amendment. Senator Mitchell in 1896 declared: "The long contest in the State of New York a few years ago has not been forgotten. A similar contest occurred in the last Oregon legislature, to the great detriment of public business. . . . The recent contest in the legislature of the State of Delaware is fresh in the public mind, resulting in the claim now pending of Mr. DuPont to a seat in the Senate, while the daily reports of the contest in the legislature of the State of Kentucky resulting as it has, after weary months of fruitless balloting, in a failure to elect, adds strength to the proposition of your committee."

Other deadlocks may be briefly recounted. In 1892-3 the legislatures of the States of Washington, Montana and Wyoming were severally engaged from the beginning to the end of the sessions in endeavors to elect United States senators, one from each state, the effort in each case proving an entire failure and resulting in the appointment of a senator from each state by the governor of those states respectively, which appointees, after protracted contest in the

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Senate, were denied admittance. In 1895, in Idaho and Wyoming, the greater part of the entire legislative session was involved in protracted struggles over the election of a senator. In 1897 the Oregon legislature not only failed to elect a senator, but the controversy over the matter prevented the organization of the body or action of any sort. The Delaware legislatures in 1898 and 1900 were unable to reach any senatorial decision. In 1901 Montana and Oregon used up almost two months in filling senatorial vacancies, while Nebraska ballotted almost three months before the senatorial vacancy was filled. In 1903 the deadlock in Colorado reached such lengths that martial interference seemed inevitable. The Republicans appealed to the Republican governor for state troops. With the Democrats depending upon the Denver police a clash of arms seemed imminent. Peace finally prevailed, however, and Senator Teller was victorious.

Another fact to be remembered in connection with the movement is that no less than fifteen states now "beat the devil about the bush" by having senatorial candidates voted for at elections, the people's action being subsequently ratified by the legislatures, which have little or no voice in the matter. The list includes Nebraska, Alabama, Washington, Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, Oregon, Virginia, South Carolina, Louisiana, North Carolina, Tennessee, Wisconsin, Arkansas and South Dakota. Three of these states, Alabama, Arkansas and South Carolina, have not yet answered Iowa's invitation to send delegates to the Des Moines convention.

Of the number, Oregon has the smoothest working and most satisfactory system. The new election law provides that each party shall nominate its candidates at the primary election. The names of these candidates then go upon the state ticket and are voted for at the general election. The senatorial candidate receiving the plurality is proclaimed the choice of the people. The matter is now before the legislature. Under the new law the people in nominating candidates for the legislature may require them to sign this pledge — Statement Number One, it is called: "I further state to the people of Oregon as well as to the people of my legislative district that during my term of office I will always vote for that candidate for the United States Senate in Congress who has received the highest number of the people's vote for that position at the general election next preceding the election of a senator in Congress, without regard to my individual preference."

The Oregon electors may not only exact this pledge, they do exact it. Forty-six of the senators and representatives last elected signed Statement Number One, a majority of one on joint legislative ballot, notwithstanding that fifteen senators elected two years ago held over and were not affected by the recent election. It is of interest to note, in passing, that at the last general election Mr. Bourne, the Republican senatorial candidate, was victorious over Mr. Gearin, the Democratic candidate, by a plurality of less than 3,200. The Oregon legislature consists of eighty-three Republicans and seven Democrats. Had the 3,200 plurality of the Republican candidate for the Senate been overcome and the Democratic candidate been victorious, would a majority of the Republicans in the legislature have put party loyalty behind them and obeyed the will of the people to the extent of sending a Democrat to the Senate? The question remains unanswered.

Alabama is another state which allows the electors to choose their senatorial representatives. At the recent primary not only were two senators elected, but two alternates, also, due to the fact that the Alabama legislature meets only every four years and that both Senator Morgan and Senator Pettus are past eighty years of age. In the event of the death of either, the governor is in honor bound to name for the unexpired term the alternate who polled the highest vote. At the recent primary there was no opposition to the present incumbents, but the field of alternates numbered seven.

The present year found the direct election method prevailing in Illinois. For the first time in the history of the state all the primaries of all the parties were held on the same day and voters were given an opportunity to cast their ballots for candidates, from United States senator down to sheriff. Senator Cullom was victorious over Ex-Governor Yates and Mr. Webster.

This system of allowing the people to

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decide, rather than leaving all to the legislature, has been especially popular in southern states. In Alabama, Louisiana, Virginia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Tennessee and Arkansas the voice of the people is supreme. South Carolina has practiced this system for several years. The law there goes so far as to provide that if none of the candidates receives a majority of the total votes cast in the first election, the two aspirants with the largest votes shall be voted for at a second election. The fact that the field has numbered four or five prominent men has made this provision imperative. That the people, not the legislature, elect the senator is evidenced by this sentence in the Congressional biography of Senator Latimer: "Was elected to the United States Senate by 17,700 majority over J. G. Evans, to succeed John L. McLaurin."

Nebraska claims to have been first in the field in this matter, the state constitution framed in 1875 containing an article expressly authorizing the voters to express their preference for senatorial candidates, a privilege which has been repeatedly exercised. Senator Burkett and Senator-elect Brown both have this method to thank for their positions. So also have Senator Foster of Louisiana, Senator Simmons of North Carolina and Senator-elect Taylor of Tennessee. Wisconsin, Minnesota, Washington and South Dakota have been the latest to adopt the innovation, Wisconsin in November, 1904, South Dakota in 1905, and Minnesota in 1906. In 1905 the Virginia Democratic state committee adopted a resolution calling on the voters to decide the senatorial succession at a primary election. Senator Martin and Governor Montagu canvassed the state, with the result that the men named for the legislature by Senator Martin were elected by a majority of more than fifteen thousand. Here was an example of the United States senator making the legislature, instead of the legislature making a United States senator.

It is not to be thought for a moment that this change of method adopted already by one-third of the states of the union is to be nationally adopted without strong opposition. Powerful forces are aligned against it. Speaking to the alumni of the Yale Law School, Senator Lodge of Massachusetts said: "Just now there is a movement on foot to bring about the election of senators by direct popular vote. If successful it will inevitably be followed by proportional representation in the Senate, and the most radical revolution conceivable will take place in our form of government. If the Senate is placed upon the same basis as the House and is chosen in the same way, by the same constituency, its character and meaning will depart, the states will be hopelessly weakened, the balance of the Constitution will be destroyed, centralization will advance with giant strides and we shall enter upon a period of constitutional revolution of which the end can not be foreseen." Senator Hoar, from the same state, raised the point that when the large states of the union agreed to equal representation with the small, it was with the understanding that the senators should not be chosen by the people, but by the conservative method, by the legislatures. To-day, Nevada with 42,335 people has equal representation in the Senate with New York, with 7,268,894 people, Nevada having senatorial representation 175 times more strongly than New York, according to population. Twenty-three of the smaller states, with a population of fourteen million, have forty-six United States senators, while twenty-two of the larger states, with a population of sixty-two million, have but forty-four senators. "Say to the large states," declares Senator Hoar, "that they must change the method of electing senators prescribed by the Constitution and you leave a door open to them for saying that as this provision of the Constitution has been changed, the obligation which was coupled with it as to the equality of states is abrogated also. Proportionate representation will then be demanded."

The fact that the Constitution declares that the Senate shall be composed of two senators from each state, and that no state without its consent shall be deprived of its equal representation in the Senate, is pointed out by the friends of the reform as sufficient answer to this. But enough has developed to show that what fifteen states have adopted quietly will not be accepted by thirty without strenuous opposition.

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THE GIFTS OF THE STARS

BY

W. S. HARWOOD

AUTHOR OF "THE NEW EARTH," "NEW CREATIONS IN PLANT LIFE," ETC.

THUMB-HIGH against the blue sky stands a white dome upon the purple mountain, forty miles from my home in the foothills across one of the loveliest and one of the richest valleys in the world. One day I stood at my telephone and talked across this wide valley with a man at another telephone in the shadow of the great white dome upon the mountain — Mount Hamilton, home of Lick Observatory.

There was nothing strange or unusual in such an act? Ah, no, so fast do miracles multiply these wonderful days; and yet it *was* a miracle, was it not? that across this wide valley, over towns and vivid green fruit ranches and yellowing fields of barley, and foothills bearing noble oaks, I could talk through the silent distance with this other man whom I could not see in his home upon the mountain, talk with him through forty miles of space as if he were at my elbow.

Just as we have become accustomed to these modern miracles one by one, so we have come to accept the gifts of the stars as matter-of-fact, every-day affairs. Indeed it may be that not a few of us are unaware that these gifts exist at all, the largess of modern astronomy.

And yet modern astronomy has not been essentially philanthropic or practical in its primary aims, but, on the other hand, severely scientific. In a day when the practical has, apparently, full swing in modern affairs, the astronomer goes about his work less as a man of affairs than as a man of science. Yet the race stands liberally indebted to him for what may be called, for want of a fitter term, the by-products of his quest through space. On land and on sea, by day and by night, the world is debtor to these men who all unselfishly, and frequently at the sacrifice of material prosperity, carry on their great work while the rest of us sleep.

Along toward noon of a sunny day you may see some officer of your ship as it goes plunging forward through the Atlantic, manipulating a brass instrument upon the deck, the sextant, with which he is going to find out, when he has made use of other aids, where he is upon this waste of waters. It perhaps rarely occurs to one traveling the sea under steam or sail, how much he is indebted to modern astronomy for his safety, how great has been the influence of the astronomer in making straight the path before him from port to port. By means of his sextant the ship's officer is able to tell the altitude of the sun in the heavens, or of a star if it be by night, how far the heavenly body lies above the horizon. Then by the nautical almanac of his nation, wherein the astronomer has given him the tables from which he may reckon, he can determine the actual local time at the moment of observation.

But changes come in the position of all heavenly bodies, or, perhaps better put, changes in the relative positions of these bodies and the earth, and the astronomer with his telescopes and his knowledge keeps watch upon these relations, knows how they will stand in time to come, prepares his tables for the future. To-day, for example, the tables which are in use are good for a quarter of a century only. So they or the data assembled for them, must be projected into the future, so to speak, and the astronomer who is making observations and accumulating data in 1906 is working for other generations.

If no observations and no tabulations were made for a third of a century, so that at the end of that period the sailor would have no data and no tables, but be obliged to fall back upon the slim sup-

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port of the magnetic needle, the situation of man upon the sea would be grave, to say the least. So through the centuries, and now even more closely than ever, the astronomer must keep at his task providing material for the tables upon which the ships must depend.

But when the ship captain has found the local time, thanks to the astronomer, he must have something else from which to reckon his position on the seas; he must know what the time is at some given point upon the earth's surface; then finding the number of hours' difference between his own local time and the time at the given point, he can tell precisely how far he is from that given point, because he knows that an hour of time is equal to fifteen degrees of distance, a little over a thousand miles at the equator. Fifteen degrees longitude varies in value from one thousand miles at the equator to nothing at the poles.

Centuries passed in the earlier periods of navigation upon a large scale before any way of fixing this time at the other point was determined. Finally, in the year 1714, the British parliament offered $50,000 to whoever should discover a method of finding longitude at sea within a degree, sixty-nine miles, $75,000 if within two-thirds of a degree, $100,000 if within a half of a degree. A man named Harrison set to work upon the problem and devised a ship's chronometer so accurate that it kept the time with but slight variation from day to day. With his clock set at Greenwich time he sailed for Jamaica, and day by day he proved his positions, so well, indeed, that his error was not over five miles in distance, thus bringing him well within the lowest limit, and entitling him to a division of the largest sum with an astronomer who had made great improvements in the tables of the moon.

Sir John Herschel, a great name in astronomy, made note one day of a voyage of a British ship from San Blas, on the west coast of Mexico, to Rio Janeiro, some eight thousand miles. For eighty-nine days the captain was out of sight of land in the midst of fierce storms. He saw but one ship in the time, an American whaler, off Cape Horn. When he was by his reckoning within but a short distance from Rio Janeiro he determined that he would be so exact that he should strike the very center of the harbor. Though he had been driven hither and thither by the winds and out of sight of land for nearly three months, he brought his ship in almost at precisely the point he had set.

"A page of lunar distances from the nautical almanac," Herschel wrote, commenting upon the incident, "is worth all the eclipses that ever happened for inspiring confidence in the conclusions of science. That a man by merely measuring the moon's apparent distance from a star with a little instrument held in his hand and applied to his eye, even with so unstable a footing as the deck of a ship, shall say positively within five miles where he is on a boundless ocean, can not but appear to persons ignorant of physical astronomy an approach to the miraculous. Yet the alternations of wealth and ruin, of life and death, are constantly staked upon the accuracy of these computations which might seem to have been devised to show how close the extremes of speculative refinement and practical achievement can be brought to approximate."

To-day in Washington the care of the chronometer is one of the important functions of the naval observatory. Once a year a series of the chronometers in service upon the warships of the nation is put under test, the test lasting from January to June. New chronometers subject to purchase after trial are also being tested constantly. Torpedo-boat watches come under the same rigid inspection in order that they may be made to run with the utmost precision in times when the fate of navies may depend upon seconds of time. Upon their accuracy may depend, indeed, a great portion of the success of a modern sea fight.

The naval observatory was founded in 1842, under a bill enacted by the national Congress "to establish a depot of charts and instruments of the navy of the United States." To determine the position of ships at sea was to be an important feature of its work. The scope of the institution has been greatly broadened, however. It is now a powerful factor in astronomical progress, adding much to the world's knowledge of the stars. As an illustration of the importance of its work from a practical point of view, it may be noted that the delicate adjustment

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of the chronometers supplied by the observatory to the navy requires that an experienced naval officer must be detailed to carry in person each chronometer to the port where it may be needed.

There was a day, and not so very long ago either, when the world regulated its clocks to suit itself. A number of years ago a movement was inaugurated by the naval observatory with the end in view of giving to the world a standard time, one which should be uniform throughout the whole world, and which should not fluctuate or change. It was among the most important projects which had been attempted by any astronomical institution.

In 1883 the first step in the standardization of the world's time was taken, the naval observatory officials dividing the United States into sections, or zones, each one of which should have its own proper time and each one of which should daily receive its corrected time from Washington or from some observatory in the zone. It was decided that as each fifteen degrees of longitude marked an hour of time the continent should be divided into four sections. These were arbitrarily established: Eastern, the time of the 75th meridian; Central, of the 90th meridian; Mountain, of the 105th meridian, and Pacific, the time of the 120th meridian.

When the day came for the adoption of the new standard it was noon in Washington and the entire eastern section when it was 11 o'clock in the Central—at Chicago, Minneapolis, St. Louis and New Orleans; 10 o'clock in the Mountain section: from the Dakotas to Arizona and New Mexico; 9 o'clock in the Pacific section: at all points on the Pacific coast. So it remains to-day, while the universal adoption of the plan around the globe appears sure to come in the near future.

The 180th meridian east and west from Greenwich, which crosses the Pacific Ocean from the Aleutian to the Fiji Islands, is called the international date line. Here our days are born at the instant it is exactly noon of the preceding day at Greenwich, 7 A.M. at Washington, 4 A.M. at San Francisco, and 1:30 A.M. at Honolulu. In case a west-bound vessel across the Pacific Ocean kept her old calendar time she would find herself, on arrival in Japan, Australia or New Zealand, one day behind in the week and month. In a recent report of the naval observatory the following interesting paragraph appears:

"A curious thing brought out by a consideration of this date line is the fact that the total duration or life of each day, if you consider the entire globe and not merely a single locality, is forty-eight instead of twenty-four hours. For example, imagine yourself close to but west of this line, near the equator, at midnight, when the new day begins. Remain there until noon and the day will then have lasted twelve hours. Now suppose that you move west, with the sun overhead all the time, until you return close to, but east of, the date line. During this rapid trip of nine hundred knots (nautical miles) per hour, you will have passed twenty-four hours, all the time at noon of the same day, making thirty-six hours in all. Finally, if you wait there until the day ends, at midnight, it will add twelve hours more, making forty-eight hours for the total duration of that single day."

There is not space in the bounds of this article to go into the question of geodesy, the surveying of vast areas of the earth's surface, to show how greatly this work is indebted to astronomy in the determination of the accurate triangulation of the earth's surface, though it is but fair to say that, without the help of the stars, the work could never have been accomplished.

One may but mention, also, the influence of astronomical observation and knowledge in the preparation of the tide tables. Any one who has ever stood upon the deck of a steamer entering the mouth of the Mersey, watching the tremendous rush of the outgoing tide; or who has been at St. Johns, New Brunswick, when the great river of the same name flows part of the day in one direction and the rest of the day in the other as a direct result of tidal influence; or who has seen the all-powerful Moncton bore as it sweeps resistlessly up the plain, a huge wall of water carrying death in its wake, can never forget the enormous power of the moon and sun upon the oceans. In the Bay of Fundy, too, where the tide sometimes rises to a height of seventy feet, this mighty power is manifest, while all around the globe there is no harbor where

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A SMALL STAR CLOUD IN SAGITTARIUS

Photographed at Yerkes Observatory by E. E. Barnard. It illustrates the infinite star population of the universe. The innumerable stars defined by the camera would never have been discovered but for its aid

a captain of ocean-going craft is not interested in, sometimes dependent on, the tables of the tides.

Nor can more than mention be made of the fact that the unit of measure for a large portion of the civilized world has been given to the world by astronomy. The determination of the length of the meter, the legal standard of measurement in many countries, which has been legal-

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ized in the United States by congressional action and which is now in use throughout the civilized world by practically every nation save Russia and England, and permitted by them, was effected by measuring an arc of the earth, and the adoption of the one ten-millionth part of the distance between the pole and the equator, 39.37 inches, as the actual unit of measure. In a room in the Bureau of International Weights and Measures in Paris, this distance is marked off by two lines upon a bar of platinum-iridium, there to remain an inflexible guide for the measurements of man, in a broad and generous way, one of the gifts of the stars to the race.

Beyond all these in interest in some ways, lies the influence of astronomy upon the time by which we carry on the thousand and one activities of life, the giving to the world at the same instant every twenty-four hours the actual time o'day. Not the time as determined by some chronometer, however delicately accurate, nor the time of a watch or a clock, but the time of a distant star, sweeping silently across the field of the astronomer's telescope in the still watches of the night.

THE FINEST CLOCK IN THE LICK SERIES

It is within a double-door case and the case stands within a double-doored room so that practically no outside dust may reach it. The clock varies but the one-tenth part of a second per day, year in and year out

It was once believed that such a star passed through the same point at precisely the same instant it had passed through that point for untold centuries, ever since it began its march through the skies, but this is not strictly true, for the stars themselves are moving in all sorts of directions, and the term "fixed star" is no longer fashionable. There are many irregularities in the motion of the earth, also, and the astronomer must take all this into account when determining the time that any star actually crossed his meridian. But the star for the layman's purposes may be said to pass a given point at the same time every night.

Every railroad clock runs on the time of the stars. Every man in the United States goes to work by a star, if he goes to work on time. Every engagement to be met, social, commercial, political, religious, or criminal, is met on the high authority of a star.

At two minutes to 12 o'clock noon every day the most western portion of the United States, comprising a strip of territory between a line drawn from the Canadian border through Ogden, Utah, and El Paso, Texas, and the coast line of the Pacific Ocean, falls into touch with the stars. For two minutes all business transacted on the time lines of telegraph in the region stops. All the many thousands of miles of telegraph in the region are connected by a switch at the time-room in the Lick Observatory on Mount Hamilton. This switch puts the most accurate clock in the Lick series into touch with the wires, so that every beat of the clock's true heart throbs out over every mile of time wire. This clock does not vary more than one-tenth of a second per day, a remarkably close approach to perfection. It has been adjusted to the time of the stars, and day by day it gives to millions of people the message from the sky.

The astronomer does not have to depend upon any one star, however, to give the clock its time. There are now fully

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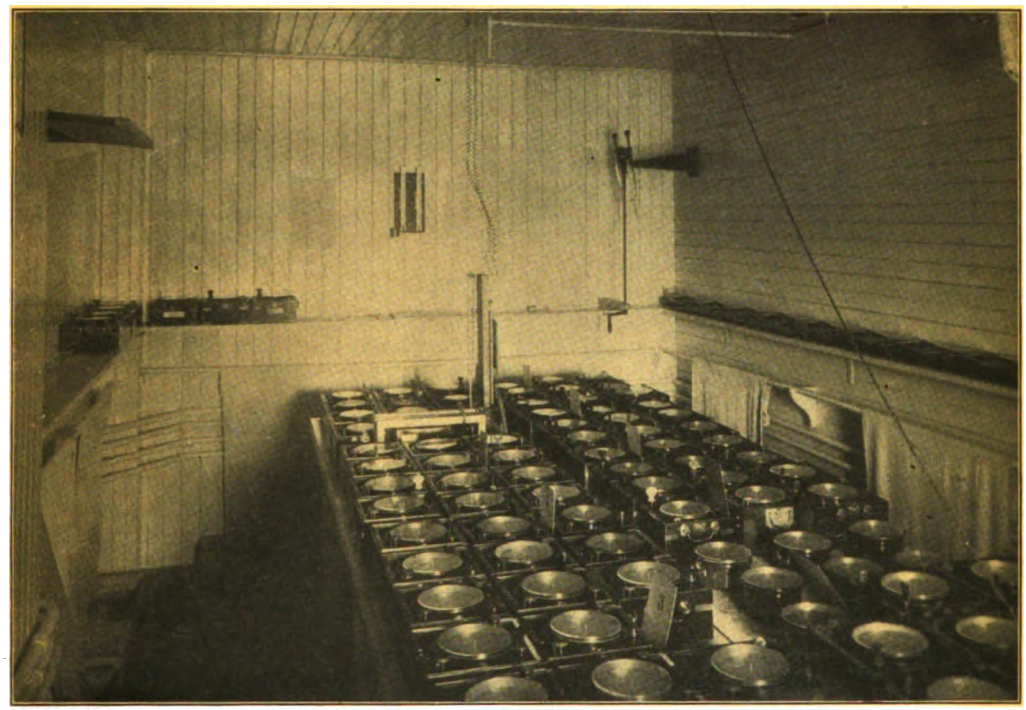
fifteen hundred stars whose positions are known with extreme accuracy. In ordinary speech we would call them invariable. The astronomers call them fundamentals. Their variation, if variation it could be called, corresponds to the five-hundredths of a second of time.



CHRONOMETER ROOM IN THE NAVAL OBSERVATORY AT WASHINGTON
Where the tests are made before chronometers are given out to the war-ships

When the operator at Lick Observatory puts his hand on the telegraph key and rattles out the word "Time," "Time," preparatory to putting the Pacific coast in perfect time, the listening operators catch the word, lay by all work, and, watches in hand, wait the tick of the clock that brings its message from the star. The clock is so made that it loses a beat just as it approaches the end of each minute, and five minutes before the coming of the hour of twelve, so that this silent warning comes in full time for the operators to put their watches into perfect beat with the controlling clock in the observatory.

A suggestion of the condition of affairs in the region served with time from this observatory in case the system were suddenly abolished was found some months ago. One memorable morning last April, memorable in a significant degree to all who were living in the region roundabout San Francisco, there was a blank hour on Mount Hamilton, when nobody knew what time it was. As soon as Professor Tucker, the astronomer under whom the time service at Lick is conducted, reached the clock-room when the first shock of the great earthquake of that April day was over, he found that some of the clocks were wholly out of commission, while the pendulum of the best clock of them all was found to be swinging at a great rate from side to side of its case. It was an hour before it steadied down. In that hour the time of day could not be told.

While the blank hour did not make any appreciable difference in the giving out of the time for that day, yet if some general, even though minor, catastrophe should happen to these clocks and those of other observatories where time is given out, so that for an indefinite period the system should be abandoned and the people be compelled to depend upon their own time-pieces, the whole railway sys-

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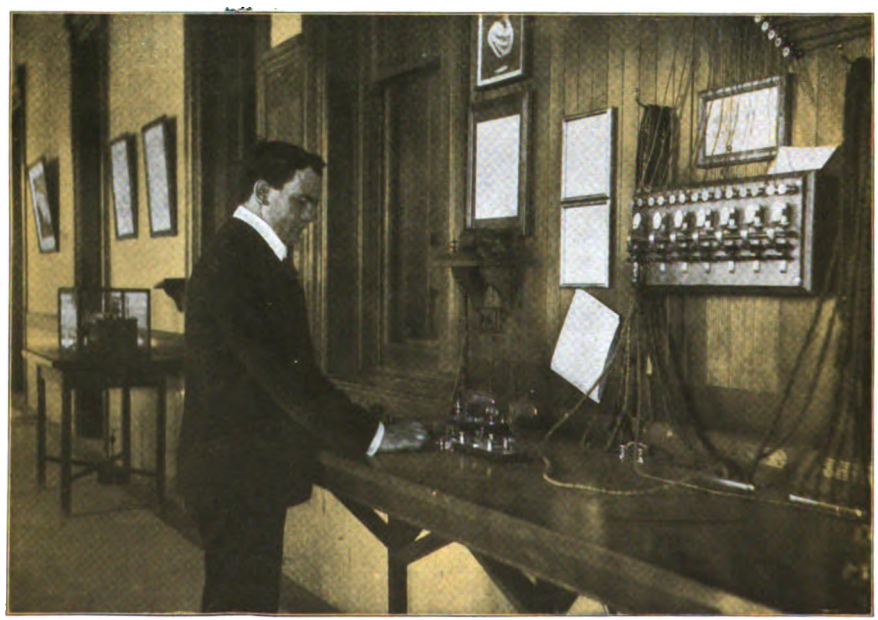
tems of the United States would be thrown into confusion, train dispatchers to whom seconds as well as minutes and hours are significant, would have no guide, business would come to a standstill because there would be no common time, trains would be running wild, the shadow of death would fall upon those who travel the steel highways of the continent.

True, some official in authority on some road might say in time of such catastrophe, "we shall call a certain incorrect time our standard, and we shall send out signals from this incorrect time, and all our officials will set their watches with it for the time being," and this might, for a short period, effect comparative safety for that particular line. A difference of a second or two in one conductor's watch on one train might make no difference, but, after the lapse of a few weeks, if this second or two should be multiplied several times with a similar experience on other trains over the country, some watches increased, some decreased, chaos would soon come, and every train would run on its own time or stop.

The star in the far heavens keeps the whole world in harmony. It is not affected by heat or cold. It loses or gains by neither. It can not be crushed or broken. It has no repair shop. It is not affected by any human whims. It does not have to be wound up. It is not disturbed in its serene, noble way by earthquake or storm.

To find the exact time by these fundamental stars recourse is had to the meridian circle. In a separate building with a slit in its dome, a telescope looks out to the sky. Inside the telescope is a series of exceedingly fine threads, made of spider web, from spiders cultivated for the production of a particularly fine and durable thread. It is said that these threads will last a half century. They are exceedingly small, not more than one-seventh of a thousandth of an inch in diameter.

The astronomer looks out through his telescope at night toward the point in the sky across which he knows one of these fundamental stars will be traveling at a certain moment. Or he may use certain stars by daylight, so clear their light they may easily be found. As the star comes into sight it crosses one of these spider threads, then another and another, five or more in all, and passes onward into space. As it crosses each thread the astronomer sitting, or half reclining, below the telescope, presses an electric button in his



SENDING OUT TIME TO MILLIONS OF PEOPLE

The operator is in direct communication with thousands of telegraph operators who are hearing him call "Time," "Time." At the proper moment he will switch all the miles of wire in touch with the clock and its beats will be heard throughout the entire distance

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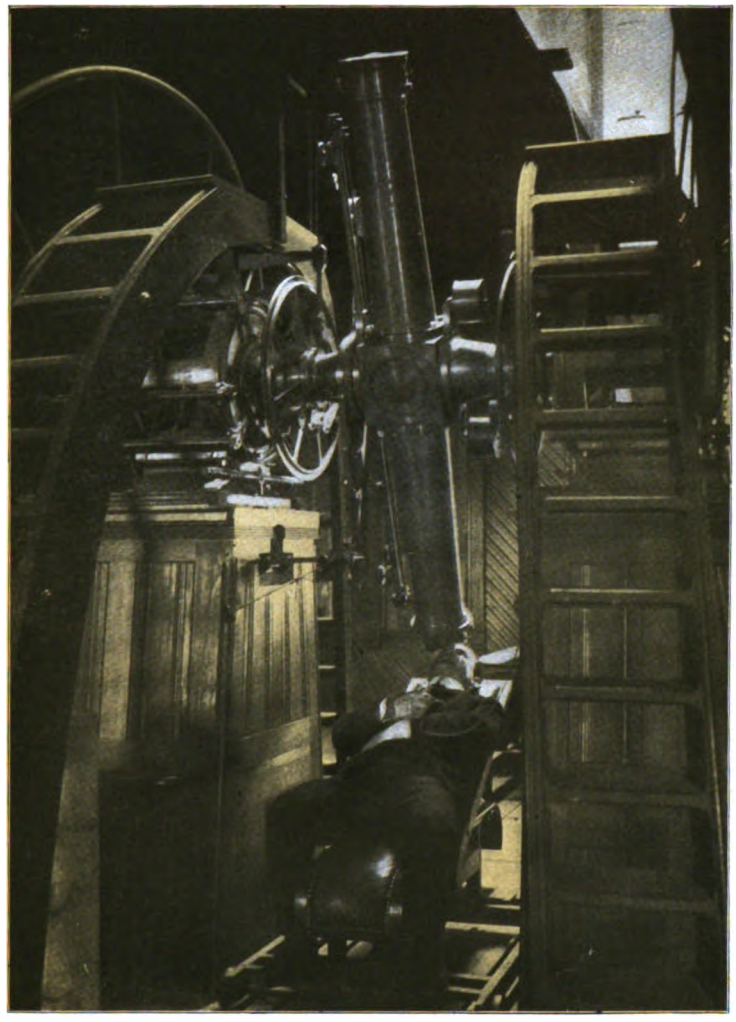

TAKING A MESSAGE FROM A STAR

The astronomer holds the electric button in his hand, which he presses as the star passes over successive spider web lines in the telescope

hand, which opens and shuts a current and sets in motion a fountain pen delicately adjusted above a roll of white paper. This pen and paper and its accompanying mechanism is called a chronograph, a time-writer. It has direct communication with the steady old clock that gives out the time. The clock's seconds are being ticked off on the sheet of paper. When the operator presses the electric button, as he sees each star cross his line, the pen makes a heavier mark, seven of them for the seven threads of the telescope.

After several observations have been taken and several records made, the astronomer can compare the time of the clock and the time of the star and ascertain how much the former's variation is, so that it may be, if necessary, adjusted. Or the difference between the true time of the star and the clock's time may be allowed for when the time is sent out. Everything in connection with the giving out of the time must be absolutely accurate and exact. For example, there are temperamental differences between two men, one of whom watches the star at one time, one at another. One of these men will press the button a fraction of a second before or after the other, his nature is that much more mercurial or phleg-

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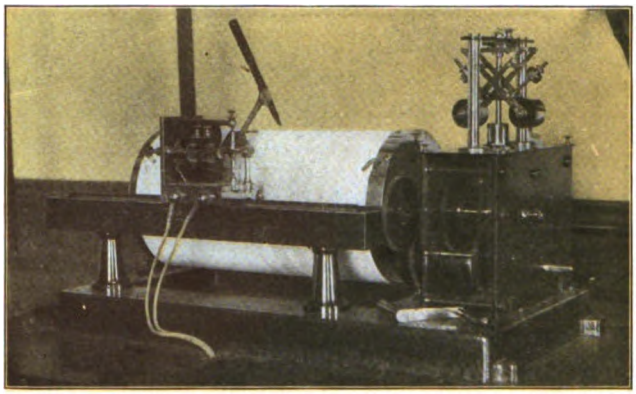

THE CHRONOGRAPH WITH THE FOUNTAIN PEN IN POSITION
It is recording the clock beats and the signals from the stars

matic. This difference, "the personal equation," must be accounted for rigidly in all astronomical observations requiring the strictest accuracy. The same system is followed in other observatories in other sections of the country, and by the naval observatory in Washington, from which time is sent out to a large area of the United States.

On December 31, 1902, an interesting plan was inaugurated by the naval observatory, the sending out of the greetings of the New Year around the world, or as nearly around the world as was then possible. The greetings were from the Master Clock in Washington. The signals sent out in the initial test were to mark the exact instant of the beginning of the new year in the four great standard-time belts of the United States. The plan was successful and aroused great interest. Arrangements were made to extend it. On succeeding years the plan has been followed, each year seeing a larger area reached.

A few moments before the exact hour of twelve, midnight, in Washington, all the telegraph wires of the globe available are switched into touch with the Master Clock in Washington. At precisely 12 o'clock it ticks out its New Year's greeting through three hundred thousand miles of wire, over land and under seas, reaching three-quarters of the distance around the earth. It reaches Madras, Cape Town, Pulkowa, Rome, Lisbon, Madrid, Buenos Ayres, Wellington, New Zealand, Guam, Sydney, Alaska.

If the line were absolutely unobstructed the message would be transmitted with practically no record of time passed. For example, no time measurable by man was used up in sending the greeting from Washington to Toronto. To the Royal Observatory in Greenwich it went in a second and a third. The three thousand miles between the naval observatory in Washington and Lick Observatory in California were traveled in the unthinkably short time of five-hundredths of a second. It took three seconds and a half to go from Washington to Sydney, Australia, eleven-hundredths of a second to the City of Mexico, four seconds to New Zealand, thirty-seven-hundredths of a second to Manila. The beats of the clock were heard simultaneously in Alaska and Buenos Ayres, in Honolulu and Manila, telling the exact instant that the New Year began in the United States. The following statement gives the time made by the message to a number of places:

Locality.	Time of Transmission. s.
McGill College Observatory, Canada	0.00
Toronto Observatory, Canada	0.00
Santa Clara College Observatory, California	0.04
Lick Observatory, California	0.05
Chamberlain Observatory, Colorado	0.07
Ladd Observatory, Rhode Island	0.07
Washburn Observatory, Wisconsin	0.09
Amherst College Observatory, Massachusetts	0.10
Chabot Observatory, California	0.10
Goodsell Observatory, Minnesota	0.10
Harvard College Observatory, Massachusetts	0.10
St. Johns Observatory, New Brunswick	0.11
Tacubaya Observatory, Mexico	0.11
Coast and Geodetic Survey station, Seattle, Wash.	0.29
Manila Observatory, Philippine Islands	0.37
Mare Island Observatory, California	0.37
Roman College Observatory, Italy	1.10
Greenwich Observatory, England	1.33
Hamburg Observatory, Germany	1.47
Coast and Geodetic Survey station, Alaska	1.70
Sydney Observatory, Australia	2.25
Survey Office, Brisbane, Australia	2.45
Adelaide Observatory, Australia	2.96
Wellington Observatory, New Zealand	4.00
Cordoba Observatory, Argentina	7.70

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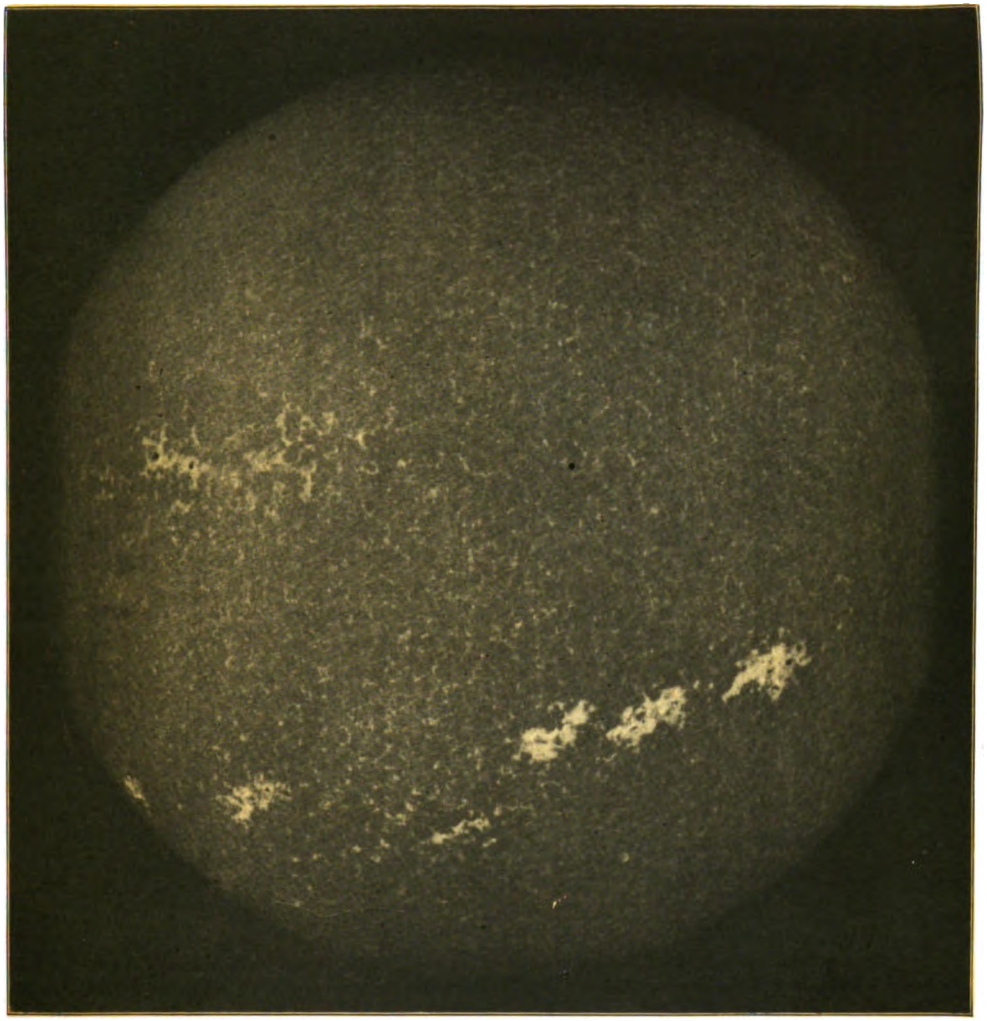

A SPECTROHELIOGRAPH PICTURE OF THE SUN TAKEN AT YERKES OBSERVATORY
The new astronomy not only shows the shape of the heavenly bodies, but also reveals the substances of which they are composed. And these, it shows, are the same throughout the universe

Mention may only be made of the part spectrum analysis, the distinguishing of the material of a body by the light coming from it, is destined to take in the future of astronomy. In its present advanced stage much has been accomplished; much more is ahead. By this analysis of the light of an object — the quality of the light remaining unchanged no matter how many millions of miles the light may travel — the remotest star, when its light passes through a prism, tells to the astronomer the story of its composition, what substances known to man enter into its remote body.

If it should transpire, as seems not improbable, that from the knowledge of the heavenly bodies obtained through the spectroscope, and from a still wider knowledge of the influence of the various elements in the sun and stars upon the earth — as, for example, the influence of electricity — the astronomer shall be able to predict unerringly great electrical and other disturbances upon the earth, predicting, indeed, times of cyclones and drouth, the world will stand debtor to him in still deeper measure, while man's hold upon terrestrial things will be made infinitely more secure.

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MRS. MARY BAKER G. EDDY

From a photograph taken in 1903, when Mrs. Eddy addressed between seven and eight thousand members of the Church of Christ, Scientist, at her home in Concord, N. H. It is Mrs. Eddy's last photograph

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MRS. EDDY FROM THE CHRISTIAN SCIENCE POINT OF VIEW

BY

CLARA LOUISE BURNHAM

AUTHOR OF "DR. LATIMER," "THE RIGHT PRINCESS," ETC.

IN this eminently practical age, when proof of utility is demanded and mere words amount to little, why do people speculate and write so much about Mrs. Eddy rather than study the effect of her teachings among the people to whom she has shown again the light Christ Jesus brought into the world? Sometimes it seems as though it were because there is little to criticize in the well organized churches and the earnest integrity of their members. Scientists are accused of worshiping Mrs. Eddy! If only their traducers and critics would trouble themselves as little with that lady's personality — past and present — as do the Scientists, and would direct the same amount of effort toward learning what it is that she really teaches, the world would be the gainer.

The excitement which prevails when a patient dies under Christian Science treatment might be calmed by the consideration that forty million die annually under materia medica. The exasperation caused by the statement that matter is not substantial might give way to sincere inquiry, since now the natural scientists announce that matter has been found to consist not of atoms, as has previously been believed, but of force.

The revered and beloved leader of the Christian Science movement was long an invalid. After having been given up by doctors and her family, she was healed by divine power, and her attention thus being forcibly called to the cures recorded in the Scriptures, she set at work to discover whether the principle which was operative in the time of Jesus might not be operative now. She was thus raised from a bed of illness to perform a mighty mission. After her recovery, for three years she was engaged in study which resulted in "Science and Health with Key to the Scriptures." This might be called the first period of her public life. She was then a woman of about fifty.

The second period commenced when she undertook to test the principle of Christian Science by helping others. Her success led so many people in the vicinity of Boston to come to her for healing and instruction that she became the teacher of a number of classes. The work grew to such an extent that she was no longer able to attend to it all personally, and she devoted herself to the instruction of teachers. She founded in 1881 the Massachusetts Metaphysical College. The applications for instruction in this college were so numerous while Mrs. Eddy was still a teacher that she was actually compelled to close the college temporarily. The Mother Church was built in Boston in 1894 as a loving tribute to Mrs. Eddy. The building still stands, although it is now overtowered by the magnificent extension dedicated in June, 1906.

A third period may be said to have begun when in her seventieth year Mrs. Eddy removed from Boston to Concord, New Hampshire, to gain freedom from the interruptions in her work, due to the great demand upon her for personal interviews relative to healing and teaching. Since then she has published a number of books, the most important being her "Miscellaneous Writings," which appeared in 1896. She has also revised "Science and Health." Her last public

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address was delivered in 1903, when she spoke to between seven and eight thousand Scientists, who made the pilgrimage from the annual meeting of the Mother Church in Boston to Concord.

In heart-breaking isolation, humanly speaking, she began her faithful ministry. In those former days that isolation was forced; misunderstanding and persecution were her lot; but without pause for self pity she pressed on, and now that her church is established, her isolation is voluntary and is as strongly resented by her critics as an attempt to mingle with them would once have been. For her there is no relaxation of work or care, even in the beauty of her advanced years. Like the general who in his camp directs the movements of near and remote armies, so she at her desk in her quiet home oversees the onward march of her Christian soldiers.

All that she receives from them in return for an absolute consecration to their needs, is love and gratitude; and even this compensation which, not being monsters they could not withhold if they would, is begrudged to her by those who prefer that she should be ignored by those whom she has blessed. Instead of making a financial tax upon the members of the Churches of Christ, Scientist, she gives freely wherever help is needed. Although pastor emeritus, she receives no salary either in that or in any other capacity. Her property is the result of her teaching in the past, and the sale of her own writings; and whatever accumulation exists has resulted from her savings and investments. This substance she dispenses with the wisdom, charity, and lack of ostentation which mark every step of her life. Her humanity, tenderness, and consideration for all is well known by those who come in contact with her in the daily business of their lives, and she is as much beloved as a charming woman as she is extolled from an intellectual point of view because of the marvelous amount of work she can accomplish in a given time, and for her acute perception and her unerring memory.

In the mythological tale of Baucis and Philemon, the gods stopped at the door of a lowly hut, and asked for a drink. It was an earthen jug like countless others from which the humble hosts hastened to serve their guests, but the water they poured turned to nectar; and never afterward did that jar, precisely like its fellows without, run dry, but it was always filled to overflowing with a wondrous, sustaining draught. Thus, despite its simplicity of appearance, the earthen jug became a priceless treasure. In some such fashion this human woman, having been the channel for an enlightened and sustaining knowledge to flow out among mankind, has drawn to herself so much gratitude from those who owe to her the renewing of their life and mind, that she sees in this clinging the danger of a narrowing thought, and wisely withdraws from publicity, while ever exhorting those who seek her to acquaint themselves with their God and hers and be at peace.

As has been said before, Christian Science is known by its fruits, not by its words; and one need only to look upon its churches and the extensive field of its activity to be convinced of the acumen, the administrative and executive ability of that leader, whose watchfulness is unceasing, and whose wisdom is constantly vindicated. For what does she work? How can even the most prejudiced believe it is for personal glory, when her life breathes personal effacement. She says to those who trust her judgment, "Follow me only so far as I follow Christ." Her labor is now as it always has been, one of love. Her household, so often termed "jealously guarded," is systematically ordered, the flood of letters pouring into Pleasant View every day requiring the presence of two secretaries. Were Mrs. Eddy to read more than one in ten of these letters, she would have no time for anything else. She alone could give the details of her industrious, selfless hours, planning here, and working there for the good of the Christian cause, showing love for her enemies not only by her failure to retaliate under the surprising attacks made upon her, but, with her thought resting upon the two great commandments, working on toward that day when all men shall *know* that they are brothers.

In my Bible lesson this morning I find these verses: "Blessed be God, even the Father of our Lord Jesus Christ, the Father of mercies, and the God of all comfort; who comforteth us in all our tribulations, that we may be able to com-

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fort them which are in any trouble, by the comfort whereby we ourselves are comforted of God." Therein lies the truest joy of the Christian Scientist. After himself receiving the comfort of healing, and gaining glimpses into the vistas of eternal life, to be able to lead others into that state of relief and courage which comes when one ceases to battle for old beliefs and becomes willing that all things shall be made new.

There is an erroneous impression abroad that Christian Science is something secret, a power which those who have acquired it are not willing to impart. It is frequently declared that Scientists are not willing to answer questions about their faith. It is not taken into consideration that all sciences need to be patiently studied. There is no high road to the science of mathematics; there is no high road to Christian Science. For the casual inquirer to be exasperated by the failure of a Christian Scientist to explain in a few words how the healing work is accomplished is as unreasonable as for the person unlearned in mathematics to be incensed because the expert in that line declines to attempt to show him in a few minutes how to work out a problem in Euclid. Mathematics is a science open to all; Christian Science is open to all. There is nothing secret about it. On the contrary, there is always loving help ready to be extended to any one who wishes to study the Bible with the help of the commentary Mrs. Eddy has given us, "Science and Health with Key to the Scriptures." In those two books are revealed all the "secrets" which Christian Scientists have learned.

I am filled with puzzled rather than indignant amazement that even temporary antagonism or bitterness could have existed toward the Christian Science denomination. Were a magazine editor to desire an article on the faith of Episcopalianism, he would be likely to engage an Episcopalian to write it. In like manner, if the beliefs of the Baptists or Methodists were to be described, application to adherents of those churches would be made. In the case of Christian Science alone, it seems to have been hitherto considered that those outside its pale are best qualified to enlighten the public concerning it. Many valuable pages of journals and periodicals have been covered by industrious writers who remind one of Josh Billings' declaration that he "would rather know less than to know so many things that ain't so."

It inspires one with astonishment that a sect of such size and average quality of individuals does not command sufficient respect in a free country to be let alone, no matter how severely. Christian Scientists would be truly grateful for severity in that line. The insults to their leader recently appearing in print have so far overshot the mark as to rouse the sense of chivalry and fair play innate in most Americans, being directed unprovoked against a gentle woman of advanced years, living a pure and helpful life. These attacks moreover rouse the ire of her townspeople who are not sharers of her faith, but who object to having doubt cast on the testimony of their own eyes and ears.

It has been well said that Christian Science is the one subject able to make even the well bred forget their breeding. Suppose two men to be accidentally sharing a hotel table. One hears the other give his dinner order. The choice of number two offends the taste of his neighbor. What could induce the first man to ejaculate, "Pah! how can you eat such stuff?" Yet similar gross ill breeding on the part of those outside the pale of Christian Science is frequently being manifested toward the followers of this faith, both in public and in private. The first gentleman at the hotel table would allow the second to eat his meal in peace, whatever it was, provided he did so quietly. The Scientists are willing to eat their spiritual food quietly and not to force it upon any one. I, too, was once among the critics of Christian Science, and that knowledge causes me to ruminate rather than to be indignant. I, too, covered valuable paper with exhortations to misguided relatives and friends who had been inexplicably caught in the meshes of what I hotly detested as a false transcendentalism. Yet I loved the gospels then. Why could I not see that Christian Science meant only a living faith in them, a realization in the present of something I had until then hoped to attain in another and a better world?

It was physical misery which faithful

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physicians could not relieve that forced me to turn to Christian Science. Despite the sense of condescension and patronage with which I at first permitted its ministrations, I was healed; and the help came so suddenly that it shocked me out of my intention to withdraw at the first possible moment from its influence. Under the permeating goodness, purity, and truth of the new teaching, one after another of the conditions which hampered my life slipped away, and I stood forth a free being. My experience is paralleled by that of thousands upon thousands of individuals.

It is no especial form of ill which Christian Science rectifies. Every phase which evil assumes goes down before it. All dishonesty, all impurity, all forms of selfishness as well as all forms of physical ill are met and conquered by the understanding and application of its rules. "But," some one says, "all ills are not met." True. All problems in mathematics are not at once solved by the student; but he has succeeded often enough to be convinced that the principle is correct, and that the cause of failure lies only in his own imperfect understanding; so that he works on in quiet confidence, humbly, patiently. Christian Science has but one mission. It goes forth to conquer evil, no matter how subtle; to annihilate it and put in its place the opposite, good. Christian Scientists succeed in this work in the vast majority of cases. An army of rejoicing persons, reformed and healed, bear heartfelt witness to the beneficent power of its truth. Will it not some day be considered a thing incredible that in a world rife with forces pulling downward, there were found many persons of character and reputation willing to decry, ridicule, and work against this wonderful, purifying and uplifting influence?

THE APPOINTMENT OF JAMES BRYCE AS BRITISH AMBASSADOR

BY

SHAILER MATHEWS

THE appointment of James Bryce as Ambassador to the United States is a compliment to America. Convinced of this fact, America welcomes him most cordially. More than any other foreigner since De Tocqueville, he has entered into sympathy with American institutions and has come to understand the American point of view in domestic and national politics.

His appointment argues that Great Britain realizes that diplomatic relations with the United States need a statesman rather than a routine diplomat.

Great Britain has great issues at stake. A proper settlement of the Newfoundland fisheries is as vital to the British Empire as to the United States, for it touches the relations of the mother country with the Dominion of Canada.

Even more important is the unexpected possibility of complications arising between the United States and Great Britain because of the Anglo-Japanese treaty. It may be that the nonchalant assurance that there is nothing in that treaty which would affect the relations of the United States and Great Britain is

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true. It may just as likely be true that the recent ripple over the California schools has aroused Great Britain to the fact that it never thought of the United States when it agreed to help Japan in a conflict with "the powers."

But, however important these considerations may be, there is another that we are apt to overlook. We speak of Great Britain as the mother country of America. But the American of to-morrow will be quite as likely to derive his pedigree from Germany or Russia, or Italy or Scandanavia, as from England. If the relations between the United States and Great Britain were complicated by the Irish question, what will be the complications when in the place of the Irishman you have the German?

The fact is Great Britain can not count upon the support of the United States simply because Americans speak English. America is no longer the thirteen colonies, and the American is no longer the descendant of the Puritan.

Every intelligent American will welcome the appointment of Mr. Bryce because he, better even than most of us, knows these facts. There is no public man in the world that knows them better. His parliamentary experience has shown him to be a statesman as well as a scholar, and in his new position he ought to accomplish much in establishing cordial relations between the English-speaking peoples. It is to be devoutly hoped he will also be successful in counteracting all influences which would commit us to an exclusive friendship with any other nation.

DO REFORMATORIES REFORM?

BY

SAMUEL FALLOWS

PRESIDENT OF THE BOARD OF MANAGERS OF THE ILLINOIS STATE REFORMATORY

Among the most significant signs of human progress is the present treatment of prisoners, and especially of youthful offenders, as contrasted with the barbarous and inhuman methods of dealing with them throughout the centuries.

The notable American pioneers of reformatory measures were Moses P. Pilsbury, his son, Amos Pilsbury, and Louis Dwight Pilsbury, the son of Amos. It was truly said of them by one competent to judge, who had made inquiry in this country and in Europe, "that the Pilsburys were rated as the best prison-keepers in the world."

Along with them must be noticed Robert Vaux and Richard Vaux, his son, both of them renowned as jurists and penologists. Following them and others, of whom space will not permit mention, were many men and women who were conspicuous in founding the National Prison Congress in Cincinnati in 1870, and helped give form and direction to what is known as the Elmira System. This system may be justly described as "the scientific treatment of imprisoned boys and young men for the sole purpose of their recovery to lawful behavior and legitimate industry when released as free inhabitants of the community."

Preëminent among these was the Rev. Dr. E. C. Wines, then secretary of the prison association of New York, whose name is a household word in America and Europe. To him the world is indebted for the convening of that congress, forever memorable in the history of our country. With him were intimately connected Professor Theodore W. Dwight, of the Columbia Law School; Rev. Dr. Frederick H. Wines, of Illinois, the honored son of

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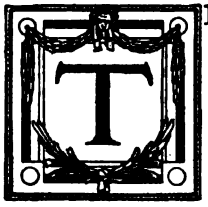
Rev. Dr. E. C. Wines; Frank B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts; Major R. W. McClaughry, who has filled some of the most important penological positions in the country, and is now warden of the United States Penitentiary at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas; Edward S. Wright, warden of the Western Penitentiary of Pennsylvania; the Rev. Dr. J. S. Milligan, chaplain of the same penitentiary, and for many years past the efficient general secretary of the National Prison Association; Charles E. Felton, of Chicago, superintendent of the Buffalo City Prison and afterward superintendent for many years of the Chicago Bridewell, and then one of the managers of the Illinois State Reformatory at Pontiac; Rev. Samuel J. Barrows, D.D., international prison commissioner of the United States; Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, official stenographer of the National Prison Association; John J. Lytle; Charles F. Coffin, and his wife, for many years active in woman's reformation; Francis Wayland; Saediner Tuffts; Rev. A. S. Byers; Michael Cassidy; P. Caldwell; I. S. Griffith; J. B. Bittinger, and ex-President Rutherford B. Hayes.

But the Nestor of this system was Mr. Z. R. Brockway, who began the superintendency of the New York Elmira Reformatory in 1876, and continued in that responsible position for more than a quarter of a century. His thorough mastery of the principles of the new criminology, his great constructive genius, and his profound knowledge of human nature gave him the opportunity of a lifetime in the conduct of that model institution. The men long identified with him in the general cause of reformation were General Roeliff Brinkerhoff, chairman of the Board of State Charities of Ohio; Professor C. R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago, whose valuable penological papers have been published in the proceedings of French and German congresses and associations; Dr. John D. Scouller, for more than twenty years superintendent of the Reform School at Pontiac; E. J. Murphy, warden of the Joliet Penitentiary, Illinois, and President of the National Prison Association; Amos W. Butler, secretary of the Board of State Charities of Indiana, and general secretary of the association, and Joseph P. Byers, its financial secretary.

The present active workers in the reformatory institutions of the land include Superintendents Joseph F. Scott, of Elmira, New York; I. D. Porter, Washington, D. C.; Theodore F. Chapin, Westboro, Massachusetts; F. A. Whittier, Red Wing, Minnesota; James Allison, Cincinnati, Ohio; M. M. Mallary, Pontiac, Illinois; Frank L. Randall, St. Cloud, Minnesota; W. H. Whittaker, Jeffersonville, Indiana; James A. Leonard, Mansfield, Ohio; F. H. Nibecker, Glens Mills, Pennsylvania; T. B. Patton, Huntington, Pennsylvania, and C. W. Bowron, Green Bay, Wisconsin.



THE law establishing the Elmira Reformatory has been in its main features the law adopted in several states for the reformatories within their bounds. The same aims, methods of government, and applications of principles, with due modifications and developments, have been followed.

The fundamental points of this new penological system may be now briefly outlined. Its bedrock is the incontrovertible fact that the violator of law can be reformed, and that the most effective way to protect society is to reform the criminal. Reformation and not retribution, therefore, should be the chief end of punishment.

The indeterminate sentence is one of the most important elements in securing this reformation. A determinate sentence is "absurd in principle and grossly wrong and injurious in practice." It results in the most marked inequalities whenever applied. A time imprisonment has not a single element of transformation of the inmate's life in it. It may restrain him for a definite period from injuring so-

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ciety, but it does not tend to reconcile him to his fellows when released.

Reformation can not be accomplished without discipline, but it must be rational, and always conducive to the attainment of a self-controlled character. When this has been gained, conditional liberation or parole should follow, for this is necessarily connected with the indeterminate sentence. The paroled boy has an employer who reports monthly regarding the wages paid him and his conduct. The boy himself makes also a report, month by month, stating the amount he is earning and his expenditures. A parole from six to twelve months is required in the several reformatories before a final discharge is granted. Society has thus been protected against crime, and the criminal has been converted into a law-abiding citizen.

To bring about the results aimed at, it was held that the reformatory should furnish well-ventilated and properly heated rooms or cells, sufficient food, full educational facilities, manual training, trade instruction, military drills, well selected libraries, appropriate recreation, with active and moral religious influences. These are actually the forces at work to-day in all the reformatories of the United States. An analysis shows that in addition to general intellectual education more than forty trades and industries are taught in the several institutions under consideration.

When the question is asked: Do reformatories reform? Do they, with the juvenile institutions, more than one hundred in number, all told, justify an outlay of over twenty-five millions of dollars on buildings and grounds, and an annual expenditure of more than six millions of dollars? I answer unhesitatingly "Yes," because these institutions are working with nature and society, and not against them. As Superintendent Scott puts it: "The best method for the reformation of criminals is to subject them to a system of discipline and training which is found essential to the training of the *normal* youth to correct moral and social living."

When the parole system had been in active operation for more than ten years a special inquiry was made by the managers of the Elmira Reformatory, who employed an intelligent and experienced clerk for nearly a year to find out the facts concerning all the inmates of the institution who had been conditionally liberated up to that time. The result of this investigation by agents, officers, and through correspondence, was to confirm the estimate made from year to year that about eighty per cent of those paroled were practically reformed. When five thousand inmates had been paroled, less than 365 had been sent back again under reformatory authority—not one in twelve.

At the end of twenty-six years, 11,296 inmates had been received in the Elmira institution. The number estimated from careful examination to have been reformed was nearly eighty per cent. The reports for each of the last three years of the same reformatory give an estimate of reformations from seventy-five to eighty-five per cent.

The Indiana Reformatory at Jeffersonville paroled 2,520 inmates between April 1, 1897, and April 1, 1904. Of this number seventy-eight per cent lived up to the terms of their parole, leaving but twenty-two per cent who proved unsatisfactory.

From personal visits to many of our reformatories and from subsequent correspondence with the superintendents and other officers of every such institution, I received estimates of the number held to be reformed. They varied from sixty per cent, which was said to be "a very low estimate" in this particular case, to eighty-five per cent. The average of all estimates was seventy-five per cent.

At the request of Governor Deneen, the board of managers and the superintendent of the Illinois State Reformatory at Pontiac made a thorough investigation of the record of the boys paroled from the institution to Chicago from July 1, 1901, to January 1, 1906. In this city is the Bureau of Identification which, for twenty-five years, has been in charge of Captain M. P. Evans, who has won a national reputation for capability and as an expert criminologist. In the bureau is kept a register of every person in Chicago charged with major offenses against the law. Every paroled inmate thus charged would, of course, be found in the bureau's list. After many weeks of patient labor by two investigators, aided by Captain Evans and his office force, it was ascertained that out of 780 Chicago paroles

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over eighty-three per cent were not violators again of the law.

It was then determined to ascertain the record of every Chicago paroled boy up to July 1, 1901, which would include a period of seven years. It was found that among the 1,286 paroled, there were over seventy per cent of ultimate reclamations, which included those who had been returned to the reformatory for violation of parole but had afterward remained faithful to their parole conditions and, when discharged, had obeyed the law. In the first seven years of the institution the number of juvenile offenders was much greater, and the time of detention shorter than in the six years following, which accounts for the lower per cent. But for the entire period of twelve years there has been an average of seventy-five per cent of reformations.

These statistics may probably be considered the most accurate yet furnished in the history of any of the reformatories in the United States, on account of the peculiar facilities afforded by the police authorities for tracing the career of each individual boy.

Over forty per cent of the Illinois State Reformatory inmates come from Chicago, and they embrace the majority of the most difficult cases with which the management has to deal. The percentage of reclamations in other portions of the state presumably would be much larger, bringing the per cent up to eighty or eighty-five. It is very safe to say that it will not be lower in any other portion of the United States than in Chicago, with the peculiar temptations to vice and crime incident to this cosmopolitan city.

It will be seen, therefore, that the average estimate of seventy-five per cent made by the various reformatory superintendents is within due bounds.

If it could be determined how many reformatory graduates had been confined in the penitentiaries or state prisons of the country, still greater accuracy could be attained regarding the number reformed, for the great majority of these graduates, if convicted of crime, would be incarcerated in them. In my visits to many of these prisons, when on my reformatory tour, and through correspondence with every warden of the other prisons of which I had no personal knowledge, I made inquiries on this point. I could not obtain exact information because the fact of a previous reformatory sentence could be imparted, in general, only by the prisoner himself. In some cases, however, the commitment made it known.

I give a few of the statements of the wardens made to me, which show that on the whole not many of these graduates have lapsed into the graver crimes.

The warden of one state penitentiary says that out of 315 inmates seven only admitted that they had served terms in reformatories.

In the Joliet penitentiary, out of a population of 3,219 received in ten years, 306 had previously served in reformatories in Illinois and other states — less than ten per cent. During the same time 2,843 inmates had been received into the southern Illinois penitentiary; of this number 155 had served reformatory sentences — less than six per cent.

In another penitentiary, out of 4,179 prisoners the records show that sixty-five were graduates of reform schools and twenty-six of reformatories.

In another state prison, reformatory graduates average from eight to fourteen out of a yearly commitment of 160 — about eleven per cent. This institution is located in a region between the two great states in the East which have the largest reformatory population.

Another very prominent penitentiary in the West, with a population averaging 1,100 yearly, in the language of its warden, known throughout the whole United States as one of the most eminent prison officials, does not have "more than one dozen graduates of reformatories, or even of reform schools."

I have taken at random eighty names from the list of boys paroled to Chicago from the Illinois State Reformatory during the last five years, and found their earnings were nearly $40,000 a year. The highest salary was $100 per month and the lowest $20 and board. Many were earning $80, $70, $65, $60 and $52 monthly. The average wages of the more than six hundred boys who have faithfully kept their parole during that time can be safely estimated at the average above given, $500 a year. And as that number are now still steadily employed, so far as

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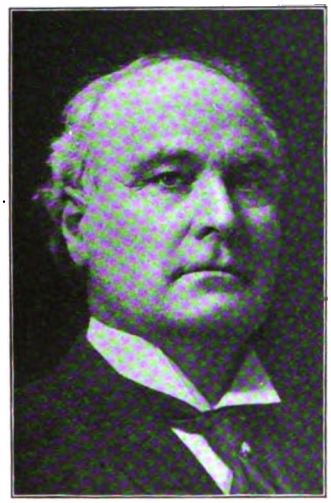

E. J. MURPHY
President of the National Prison Association, and Warden of the Joliet penitentiary

ENOCH C. WINES
Who was instrumental in establishing the National Prison Congress in 1870

JAMES A. LEONARD
Superintendent of the State Reformatory at Mansfield, Ohio

is known, their annual productive value is $300,000.

Making a very conservative estimate, that sixty-five per cent only of the more than two thousand boys who have been sent back to Chicago have become good citizens, and taking the average earnings, just given, these one thousand three hundred young men are annually receiving $650,000 for their services.

I took thirty names of Chicago boys on parole at the present time and found that they were receiving on an average $400 per year. Later on they will average as above, $500.

Taking the same average of sixty-five per cent of the six thousand boys already paroled from the institution, and of the earnings just enumerated, we have $2,000,000 as the amount annually paid them. Applying the same low average of reclamations and earnings to the more than thirteen thousand inmates discharged from the Elmira Reformatory, we find the annual sum paid them to be more than $4,000,000. Thus the gradu-

SAMUEL J. BARROWS
International Prison Commissioner of the United States

JOSEPH F. SCOTT
Superintendent of the Reformatory at Elmira, N. Y.

C. R. HENDERSON
Of the University of Chicago, who is a valued writer on penological topics

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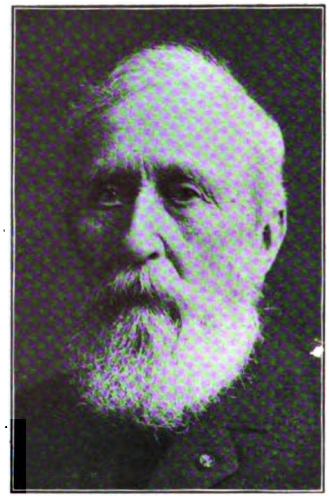
SAMUEL FALLOWS
President of the Board of Managers of the Illinois State Reformatory



ROELIFF BRINKERHOFF
Chairman of the Board of State Charities of Ohio

AMOS W. BUTLER
General Secretary of the National Prison Association

ates of two out of the ten adult reformatories in the United States are being paid more than $6,000,000 per year. They are earning an amount equal to the annual expenditure of all the reformatories and industrial schools in the United States.

A few extracts from thousands of letters received by various superintendents will illustrate the good work the reformatories are accomplishing:

I have paid a debt of honor of $120 and have in the savings bank $150. I have clothed myself well and provided myself with all necessary outfit.

He had learned the brickmaking trade in the Ohio State Reformatory.

One who is just married and lives a reputable life writes:

I wish to thank you for what you and the Board of Managers have done for me. I shall try my best to become an honorable and useful citizen.

ENTERING THE STATE REFORMATORY AT PONTIAC, ILLINOIS

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FRANK B. SANBORN
One of the originators of the new prison methods

W. H. WHITTAKER
Superintendent of the Indiana State Reformatory

FREDERICK H. WINES
Who was president of the National Prison Association in 1904

I am still working for the firm that employed me when I departed from the reformatory. I am advanced to $3 per day. I learned my lessons while in the reformatory and I hope they will go through life with me for my betterment.

One who has just received his final discharge says:

I promise you that I will do right and be honest as long as I live.

I am proud to say that my parole book is empty, but I could serve the rest of my life on parole if I had to.

A boy with a full heart wrote to his Illinois superintendent:

You were more than a friend to me; you were almost a father. I have just been promoted to foreman.

I didn't want to come to the reformatory, but I must say there never was a better thing happened to me, because of your kind and fatherly instruction. I have given my heart to God and expect to live an honorable life.

The following came from one who did

GRADUATES OF THE ILLINOIS STATE REFORMATORY

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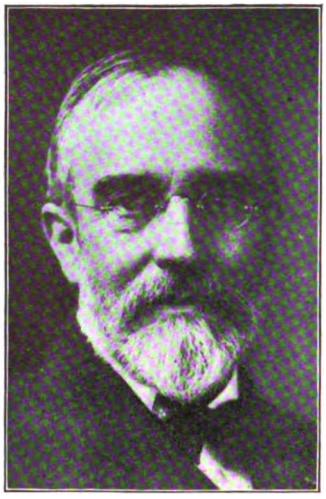
JOSEPH P. BYERS
Superintendent of the House of Refuge, Randall's Island, N. Y.



R. W. McCLAUGHRY
Warden of the United States Penitentiary, Fort Leavenworth, Kan.

CHARLES E. FELTON
Who was one of the managers of the Illinois State Reformatory at Pontiac

not get along very well at first with the authorities:

Since coming home all my old desires and inclinations have left me and I attribute it more to the training and discipline I underwent while in the reformatory than to anything else, although I first had to learn the futility of trying to "buck" the administration.

An exceptionally capable young man, who was depressed and degraded on coming to the Ohio institution, but who is now a junior partner in a small but flourishing business, wrote as follows:

I shall never forget the morning you stopped before the blacksmith shop and, after contemplating me a few minutes, stepped up to me and said, "I believe I see the making of a very good man in you." That was the first word of hope and faith that had been spoken to me in a long, long time. That was the hour of sunrise for me in a new career. It occurred to me if you could discern the making of a man I ought to make good the hope. I trust that the measure of success I have attained is some guarantee to you of my good faith, and I hope to make much more positive demonstration of the fact that it is best sometimes to have words of faith and hope for a discouraged wrongdoer.

PRISONERS ARRIVING AT THE ELMIRA, N. Y., REFORMATORY

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Another says:

I am getting along finely and am behaving myself and working every day for my father.

The chief of police of a city writes to the Elmira Reformatory of a prisoner paroled to his care:

Before being sent to your institution we thought he was past reform, but during his parole he has conducted himself in a different manner, which speaks great praise of the way in which your institution is conducted.

A boy of foreign birth, who was returned for violation of parole and is not yet ready for another trial, has written the following letter, which has just come under my notice, from the Illinois State Reformatory:

DEAR FATHER,—As mother told you, I am working in the engine room, fitting boilers and doing repair work.

Yes, father, time will slowly but surely bring me back home to you. I am doing my best to behave myself and get in my time.

Don't let my absence cause you sorrow, for "behind each cloud the sun's still shining." Yes, father, and when it shines my way again I'll keep it shining and let no more clouds darken my life. Your loving son,

———

Thirty of the paroled boys of the Illinois State Reformatory were recruited by an officer of the regular army for service in the Spanish-American and Philippine wars. The lieutenant wrote back to the institution that he had never seen such well-drilled and well-behaved recruits before, and complimented the management highly for furnishing such additions to the service. He said that "in less than four weeks several of them were promoted to be corporals and sergeants." All the boys who returned to the country received honorable discharges, and some of them special mention for high soldierly conduct.

A bright young man got into trouble during the Columbian Exposition and staid in the institution for eighteen months. Three years after, while attending the National Encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic, I went into the room where a score of correspondents were busy at work for their papers. As soon as I entered it, one of their number came forward and taking me by the hand said: "I see you don't know me." "No," I replied. He said: "I am one of your boys." It was the boy just mentioned. He said: "I am the correspondent of the New York ——," naming one of the leading journals of that city.

From every point of view, therefore, I think we can justly claim that reformatories do reform.

DISCHARGED AND PAROLED BOYS LEAVING THE REFORMATORY AT ELMIRA, N. Y.

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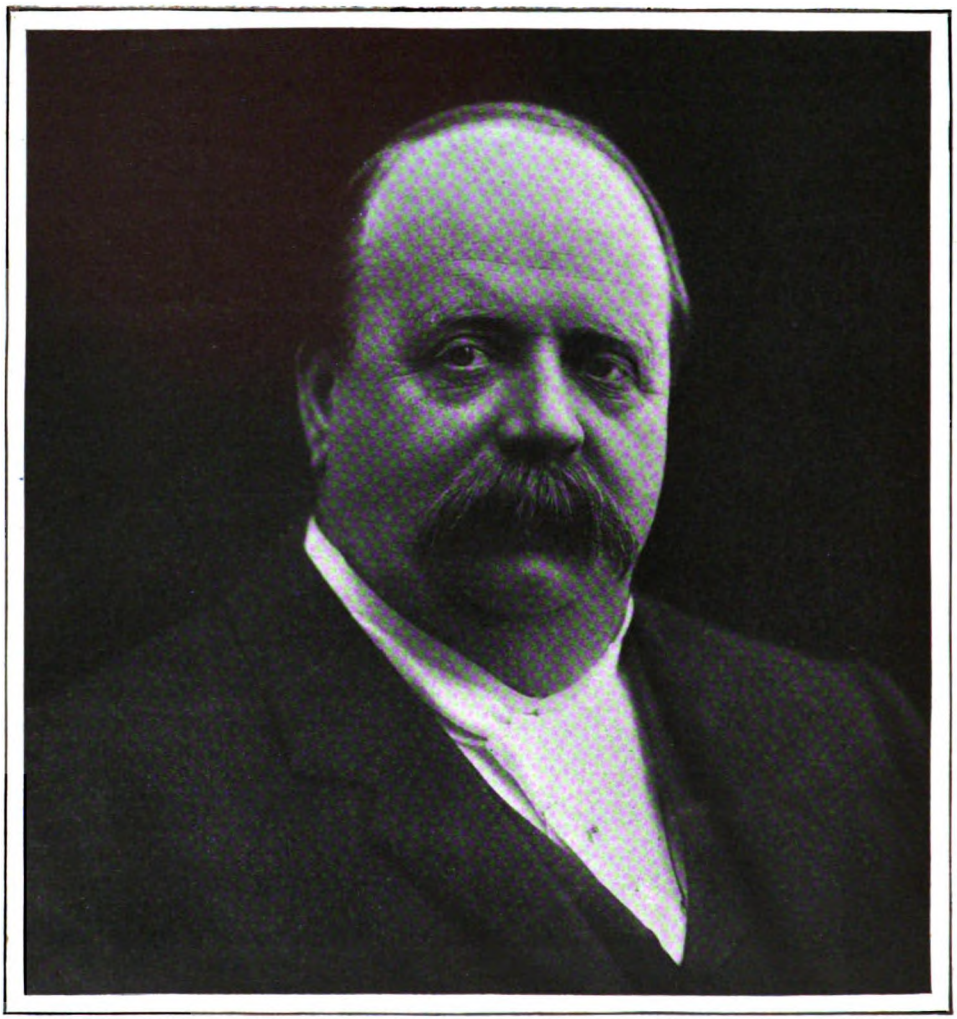

THE RT. HON. GEORGE HOUSTOUN REID

THE FORMER AND PROBABLY THE NEXT PREMIER OF AUSTRALIA

BY

WILLARD FRENCH

OUR almost sister-republic, down at the other end of the oceans, is having troubles of her own over practically the same questions which are vexing us. The new Australian commonwealth is deep in the toils of tariff legislation, labor-party dominance, government ownership and what-not, and the man of the hour, who seems to have grasped the bull by the horns, is the Right Honorable George Houstoun Reid, P. C.

Here is the record of his climb up the ladder: Treasury clerk, state premier of New South Wales, king's counsel, privy councilor, first premier of the Australian commonwealth — knocked out by Deakin and his Labor party — then

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leader of the opposition and the "Free Trade" party, now looking up, again, as his dominance grows, and by all the indications of the recent election destined to occupy the top of the legislative tower once more.

Through each of his offices, in turn, from the day he entered into public affairs, he has been a noted figure in the drama, and a man to be carefully considered. If to attract the pen of the cartoonist is index of greatness, Reid has long been the star of the Southern Pacific. He is a tempting model, from the cartoonist's viewpoint, and he has been preserved in more sketches than any Australian except, possibly, the one and only Sir Henry Parkes. Rotund as a squat barrel, bull-necked, double-chinned, beardless, mustached, heavy foreheaded, lightly thatched, wearing an unrimmed monocle prominent as the headlight on a locomotive, always in a tall hat, always with his long black coat unbuttoned, he attracts the few strong pencil strokes which unmistakably present him on every possible provocation — and he never fails to offer provocation. If a man could have been killed or created by cartoons Reid would have been one or the other long ago.

Reid seldom rides anywhere. He prefers to waddle along in his own rolling way among the people, who all know him — he knows every one. He is emphatically the reverse of a lazy man, though many an Australian has said it, judging from his slow, corpulent stride, his great, soft, sleepy eyes and his trick of dropping off for a nap, anywhere and everywhere, oftener than otherwise announcing the fact with accompanying snores, quite irrespective. He will sleep in the midst of a debate in parliament with the childlike innocence that is disconcerting to those who put faith in it, for let the debate take a turn which he disapproves and he is on his feet in an instant, wide awake, with a perfect grip on the situation, sailing mercilessly into whoever is off color, his monocle flying in every direction. That monocle is his trade-mark. Without the monocle it would not be Reid. It is continually dropping and continually being replaced. It is a danger signal which those who know him have learned to heed. It is adjusted with extra care and an extra grip before a specially drastic sentence.

There's a story told in Australia about Reid — goodness knows about how many others it is told in other lands — that the plaintiff in a case where Reid was defendant's counsel — a plaintiff who did not know Reid — said to his attorney: "What a fool the defendant was to engage that man. He's so sure in advance that he'll lose the case that he's asleep more than half the time." The attorney replied: "My dear sir, if the Honorable Georgie is asleep in this trial when there's the remotest chance of my scoring a point, get down on your knees quick, man, for the end of the world has come."

Reid was made first premier of the commonwealth as a kind of thank offering for turning about on himself and favoring where he had opposed the federation. There are some who think that the thank-offering was held up in advance for his inspection. That is his affair and theirs, not ours. At all events he was a kind of complimentary first premier, till Deakin, with his watchword of "Strangling Industries," and slogan of "Australia for the Australians," gathered the force of a Labor party behind him and pushed Reid out. This left him leader of the opposition and butt of pretty much everything that could be thrown. Some say that he enjoyed this kind of thing much better than the other. He threw back valliantly, for a man of parts is Reid, and among them all, good and bad, the two which top the rest are executive ability in marshaling forces for assault and a perfect genius for answering back. He is a man of quick wit, of barbed-wire satire, of brilliant irony, with words to burn — words that do burn — on any subject under heaven, the moment it is broached.

He went at the "Strangling Industries," and "Australia for the Australians," by pounding away with the question: "Who are Australians but men who will come here ready to do something? Why are industries strangling except because we are keeping them away?" He has apparently won out. Unless the times are so dry that all signs fail, the Labor party as an individual force has faded and Reid is in for another premiership.

Reid is a man of rare penetration. He

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can probe and produce a masterly diagnosis, but he is so prodigiously optimistic that his foresight is sometimes foreshortened. He fails in Sir Henry Parkes' specialty. He is not another Sir Henry, much as some of his admirers try to make him into one with words. As has been said he went both ways in the federation business. There was method in the madness, but it was not Parkesish. It failed to accomplish all that he had in mind, but it won for him the name of "Yes-no-Reid," which will cling to him forever.

However, he took the hint and since then has grown stronger. Now, they call him "Georgie," where he is, and where he isn't they call him "Georgie Pordie." For he is one of them, even if he is not Sir Henry. Reid never smokes. He seldom touches alcoholic liquors. Put to it he is a worker, with rare powers of penetration and concentration and prodigious reserve force. Few men ever displayed the untiring energy which marked Reid as minister of the crown, on the stump, in the cabinet and in the legislature.

The distinction of knighthood was open to him, but he declined to put himself in the way of it. He preferred to remain plain "Mr." to the satisfaction of all Australians, who highly approve that their leaders be men of the people, wearing only such distinctions as are conferred on them by personal attainments or popular acclamation. The bitterest of his enemies never for a moment doubts that Reid is honest. His greatest handicap is that instead of letting politics enrich him he keeps himself poor through his attention to public interest at the expense of a law practice that is capable of being made one of the best in Australia. He is as far as possible from being a society man. No insinuation ever touched his private life.

In face and figure, disposition and diction, Reid is enough like our lost Czar to be twin brother of the late Tom Reed. He says that every American he meets reminds him of the fact. He misses some of Reed's mental qualities. He has others which Reed missed. Above all, he is versatile. See him on the floor, as the leader of the opposition, quivering with life, up and at it on the instant, hitting the nail on the right head every time, and he reminds one of nothing so much as an unabridged edition of John Sharp Williams. See him smiling down boisterous malcontents or sitting in his specially constructed armchair, his pudgy hands put gently out, stilling surging seas, and you exclaim: "Another Taft!" Meet him for an impromptu chat and his brusque syllogisms, his big bald forehead underpinned by a substantial double chin, his half-asleep eyes that nevertheless see everything worth seeing — rather ominous eyes — and the way he uses his fat fingers to conclude a sentence he is too lazy to finish with his lips, take you back again to Tom Reed; doubled if there ever was a double, even to the color and texture of his hair and mustache. But withal you've not seen the real Right Honorable Georgie, till you have caught a glimpse vouchsafed only to the favored few, of that ponderous form rolling on the floor, playing with his children.

They are the secret that more than all else stands in the way of Mr. Reid's mounting the heights as the one and only. He has not the means to afford it. He can not throw himself into the fight with all or even half his energy. He must practice law two or three days a week, in Sydney, where he lives and is looked to by the poor as the laborer's champion, in order to practice politics the other days in Melbourne — where the commonwealth congress meets till its dream-capitol arrives — where he fights the Labor party tooth and nail.

He is charmingly cordial and good-natured, as one of his dimensions finds it difficult not to be. He is witty almost to being a humorist — bad enough for an American, worse for an Englishman aspiring to political preference. But in spite of all he is a power, practically the power, of Australia; whether through lack of a greater power to down him, as say his enemies, or through inherent qualities, as claim his friends. His enemies love him better than they like him. His friends like him better than they love him. None of them deny that if affairs should turn so that he could afford to put his whole time and talents into politics, the Honorable George could run a good race as Australia's coming man. Neither do they deny that Australia stands sadly in need of a leader.

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

The Michigan Forestry Convention

By John Ihlder

THE second annual convention of the Michigan Forestry Association began a year during which the members hope to accomplish something definite in the way of reclaiming a large portion of the six million acres of cut-over lands in the two peninsulas that are now rapidly degenerating into deserts because of lack of care. These lands are in great part sand plains that once bore pine forests. Since the forests were cut down they have produced nothing of value. With a soil too poor to raise farm produce, they have not been taken up by settlers. The only persons directly interested in them are a few squatter lumbermen and land-sharpers in Chicago and other distant cities who by means of false and alluring advertisements induce ignorant investors to put money into land that can not be cultivated at a profit. But though these sand plains can not produce grain or fruit or vegetables, they can produce trees. And the purpose of the forestry association is to make them produce trees.

The chief obstacles in the way are: first, a misconception of its purpose on the part of the people of the counties where it proposes to establish forest reserves, and, second, a determination on the part of the land-sharpers and their allies at Lansing and in the counties to keep the people from understanding that purpose. The laws of Michigan provide that when the taxes on a piece of land have been unpaid for five years that land shall revert to the state. The state then advertises it for sale in the local newspapers. As the land is valuable only for the timber on it, the advertising continues until the rise in the price of lumber or the maturing of such trees as the first owner thought too small for notice, makes it worth purchasing at a low figure. The second owner having "skinned" it of its value permits it to revert again to the state, and the advertising recommences. This advertising has long afforded many newspapers in the cut-over counties their

WHERE THE SAND HAS DRIFTED IN SINCE THE TREES WERE CUT DOWN

A good illustration of the results which follow the destruction of the pine forests

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ATTACKING A FIRE IN TIME

Last year Michigan suffered a loss of half a million dollars from the fires which swept over the cut-over land

chief means of subsistence. It also has long afforded excuse for the employment of a large force of transcribing clerks in the auditor-general's office at Lansing.

But of late years the land-sharper from the cities has taught the countryman a trick worth several of his. This sharper buys up a tract of land, plats it in small lots or farms, and sells it. Of the purchasers who visit their property very few stay. Occasionally some deluded individual fights desperately for a year or two to raise a crop that will keep him from starvation. Then he lets his land go for taxes. And as each plat is transcribed and advertised separately, the salaries at Lansing and the profits to the newspaper proprietors are increased enormously by this cutting up of the old timber holdings. Consequently the sharpers have no lack of allies.

The argument that these allies use with the people of the cut-over counties is that the forestry association wishes to wipe out the farmer. There is probably not a county in Michigan that is not composed in good part of plow land. This fertile soil in some places extends over thousands of acres. In other places it forms islands only a few feet across. Around these islands of good soil is a sea of barrens. Wherever this good soil occurs in areas large enough to pay for cultivating, the forestry association would encourage the farmer to settle. Many of these fertile islands are now, and long have been, occupied by farmers. It is these farmers who, in too many cases, are used as decoys by the sharpers who wish to sell neighboring barrens.

No one knows better than the local farmer that a portion of the land in his county is worthless for agriculture. And no one would be more benefited by having that land devoted to forestry. For this would mean value where at present no value exists, and taxes on that value, which would aid him to meet his local expenses in maintaining roads and schools and township and county government. But he has been so thoroughly imbued with the idea that all land looks alike to the forestry advocate, that he fears every move in the direction of reforestation is prompted by a desire to return his acres to a wilderness.

How false this idea is must have been realized by any one who attended the sessions of the forestry convention, or who read the full accounts of it which appeared in the local newspapers. The resolutions adopted at the close of the convention, which will form the platform of the association in its campaign to secure

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favorable laws from the legislature this winter, also show this clearly. These resolutions call for adequate protection from the fires which yearly sweep over the cut-over lands, killing all the young stuff and destroying the organic matter in the soil; for a rational system of taxation, under which trees will be considered a crop to be taxed once when harvested, as are grain and vegetables, instead of being taxed every year as part of the land until more than their value at maturity has been paid in to the state treasury; for the abolition of the homestead law, which valuable as it was in early days when good land was still plenty and awaiting settlement, is now used only to cloak designs on scattered patches of timber; and for the exacting of a minimum price of $5 an acre for all state lands. The purpose of this last provision would be to put out of business the sharpers who can now buy barrens for as little as fifty cents an acre. The advocates of forestry claim that if land is good enough for farming purposes it is worth $5 an acre, or, stated conversely, that land not worth $5 an acre will never support a farmer, that it will simply breed paupers.

It is probably too much to hope that all of the measures outlined in the resolutions will be passed by this year's legislature. If the forestry association can secure only the enactment of the first two: providing for a real fire-warden system that will save Michigan from a repetition of last year's half-million-dollar fire losses, and for a tax law that will encourage owners to keep trees until they are mature instead of cutting them down as soon as they are large enough to make fence posts, it will feel that it is justifying its existence.

A MICHIGAN FOREST NURSERY

The Labor Press

By William Restelle.

ONE hundred and eighty-five monthly and one hundred and seventy-nine weekly journals in the United States and Canada are devoted exclusively to the advocacy of trades-unionism. These 364 publications, which number does not include socialist periodicals, reach a no inconsiderable portion of the laboring community and exercise an influence in it which is little suspected. There are in North America approximately two million five hundred thousand working people organized into trades unions, and each of them receives the official organ of the craft to which he or she belongs and usually one or two other labor papers. But the prestige of these journals extends beyond the enrolled membership of estab-

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lished organizations. They number among their subscribers many sympathizers and non-union workmen; they are placed on the tables of reading-rooms all over the country; and for every subscriber there are probably two readers. It is no exaggeration to say that they reach five million readers, perhaps half as many more.

The chief business of the labor press is to publish news relating to the labor movement, to keep workingmen informed of what their comrades are doing in other localities. It is essential to the success of trades-unionism that its members be kept in touch with each other, that they be continually instructed on industrial issues, for unity and knowledge are here as elsewhere the parents of power.

The labor press keeps workingmen informed about the conditions of the labor market in various parts of the country. Correspondents write of the needs of their districts and notices frequently appear to this effect: Printers, keep away from Idleton, strike on; Painters, nothing doing at Sleepy Hollow; Forty Iron Molders needed at Boomingville; Carpenters and Bricklayers wanted badly in San Francisco. The importance of getting labor to where it is needed and preventing its congestion in places where it is not, has long been recognized by sociologists. Trades-unionism should be given credit for contributing to the solution of this difficulty.

Besides being a forum for the discussion of trades-union matters, the labor papers often render timely help to workmen in distress, especially to strikers, by appealing through their columns for financial assistance. In this way many are prevented from becoming citizens of the Underworld by a little fraternal care, and not a few strikes are saved from ignominious failure. Firms that do not run their businesses in accordance with trades-union principles are advertised gratis as "scab shops" and their names placed on "unfair lists" that all who read may know that their goods are to be discriminated against.

Broadly speaking, labor organizations are to be complimented on the excellence of their publications. Some of them, it is true, are a travesty on the art of journalism, being very badly gotten up and containing little reading of general interest. But the greater number of them are passable, while quite a number of the craft journals are magazines of no mean merit, especially when it is taken into consideration that they are edited by the secretaries or presidents of the international unions, men who have had no previous experience in journalism. One need only glance through the journals of the Railroad Conductors, the Railroad Telegraphers, the Locomotive Engineers, the Iron Molders, the Machinists, the Typographical Union, the Western Federation of Miners, the Coopers Union and others too numerous to mention to appreciate how warranted is the praise bestowed upon them. Pick up *The Machinists' Journal,* for example, or *The Railroad Conductor,* and after reading their contents you will feel tempted, if you are at all interested in labor questions, to send them a year's subscription. The *American Federationist,* the official organ of the American Federation of Labor, edited by Mr. Samuel Gompers, contains many interesting articles descriptive of the labor movement in foreign countries and timely papers on current topics besides the official utterances and editorials. The weekly labor papers are printed in newspaper style and in point of excellence stand in the same relation to the craft-journals as the metropolitan dailies do to the monthly magazines. They are mostly the official organs of central labor unions and their special business is that of looking after the interests of the workers in the cities or districts where they are published.

Most space is devoted of course to matters purely trades-unionistic, such as the reports of locals, news of the movement from all parts of the country, questions affecting the polity of labor organizations and personal sketches of prominent trades-unionists. Eulogies on and replies to attacks made against trades-unionism are served up to the reader in issue after issue. Encomiums, naturally enough, are appreciated and adverse criticism resented. All that can be said in favor of trades-unionism is said, and all that is said against it is answered or ignored. But in addition to partisan articles is much matter of general interest. Homilies on the virtues, scraps of verse, natural history notes, ancedotes and bits of humor, stories and popular miscellany are plentifully used. Not long ago *The Voice* of

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Winnipeg published in serial form Tolstoy's "Resurrection," and serial fiction (mostly borrowed) is to be found in a number of the weeklies. Poetry does not seem to be given due prominence, and what does appear is mostly selected.

Technical departments are a prominent feature of some of the journals of the skilled trades. Their purpose is to increase the efficiency of workmen by the diffusion of technical knowledge among them. To this end instructions are given to apprentices, new inventions described and the technique of intricate machinery explained. A "woman's page," or column is to be found in most labor papers, but the wives of workingmen are not told society gossip. They are, instead, exhorted to give their support to the trades-union movement by inducing their husbands to attend the lodge meetings and by discriminating against non-union goods.

IMPORTANT LABOR JOURNALS
Technical departments are a prominent feature of some of the journals of the skilled trades

There are three labor papers in America published exclusively in foreign languages, one in Polish, one in German and one in French. Besides these, foreign workmen unable to read English are supplied with labor news in their own language by several of the craft journals and some of the weeklies. The *Bricklayer and Mason,* for example, conducts departments in three languages other than English, namely, German, French and Italian, while the *Cap-Makers' Journal* is published half in English and half in Jewish. The language most used besides English is German.

A great deal has been written on the relations of workingmen to the churches, but little genuine effort has been made to grasp their point of view. If one can judge from the silence of the labor press on this subject, the question is not a burning one among trades-unionists. If any attitude can be attributed to them, it is that of neutrality. Occasionally the topic is discussed, but nothing important is ever said. The feeling, however, seems to be that the Church is a bulwark of conservatism, an institution for the well-to-do. Yet if the labor press inclines one way more than another, it inclines toward friendliness to the Church. Articles sometimes appear in the trades-union papers eulogizing the churches, and the utterances of clergymen friendly to the labor movement are eagerly printed. Indeed, clergymen who know how to interest workingmen need never fail of a hearing.

Though favoring such socialistic measures as the nationalization of mines, railways and telegraphs, the municipalization of trolleys, gas plants, electric power plants and other public utilities, the taxation of the rich and landed property, old age pensions and government insurance, the labor press evinces more hostility than friendliness for the Socialist party, and its revolutionary doctrines. Socialism receives little attention, and that little usually takes the form of adverse criticism. Yet Socialists can not complain that their theories are entirely ignored.

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Some of the labor papers throw their columns open to their discussion and a number of them are all but nominally socialist sheets. *The Voice* of Winnipeg, one of the largest and most creditable labor weeklies, contains a department edited entirely by Socialists. *The Miners' Magazine,* which is the official organ of the Western Federation of Miners, is a strong exponent of revolutionary Socialism, but its rival organization, the United Mine Workers of America, is a conservative body under Mr. John Mitchell's leadership. Social Democracy does not give much promise of controlling the mouthpieces of organized labor in America for some time yet to come.

It is doubtful whether so many labor papers could exist if they had to depend entirely on advertising and subscriptions. The financing of a labor paper, however, does not require much private enterprise. All the craft journals are financed directly out of the funds of their respective unions and most of the weeklies receive grants from the central labor unions until they become self-supporting. A few of the publications carry considerable advertising and have large circulations, but were the financial backing of the trade organizations withdrawn from the greater number they would disappear within a month.

Solving the Race Problem in Atlanta

By Annie E. S. Beard

Realizing that the conditions which precipitated the recent tragedy in Atlanta must be in some way altered, thoughtful citizens of that city have put in operation three distinct movements toward that end. Each is full of hope and promise of good.

Hon. W. J. Northen, ex-governor of the state, is the leader in a religious effort to secure permanent coöperation between white and colored by the formation of a Christian League to consist of those "of both races who will agree to promote the highest type of citizenship, maintain all existing laws, and promote peace and good will." It is not an organization, but "a sort of southern legion of honor." The Business Men's Gospel Union, an organized body previously existing, of which ex-Governor Northen is president, is the directing head of this league. The ministers of Atlanta are coöperating with it, and weekly prayer-meetings, attended by members of both races, have been held in the rooms of the colored Young Men's Christian Association. On a designated Sunday sermons on law and order were preached in all the pulpits of the city, and extracts from them were printed in the daily press very generally throughout the state, the utterances of the white and the colored ministers alternating. This made a marked impression. It is the purpose of ex-Governor Northen to extend this movement to every community in the state. The Atlanta *Geargian* considers it "the most important step ever made toward the solution of our problem of problems."

The law and order idea is further developed in a Civic League which is being organized by Charles T. Hopkins, a graduate of Williams College but a native Southerner, prominent in politics and at the bar in Atlanta. He was one of the influential members of the committee of safety established at the time of the race riots. It is the purpose of this Civic League to take such action "as will tend to promote peace between the races, see that offenders of both races are apprehended and justice impartially administered, and permanently to secure protection to both white and black."

A "Colored Coöperative Civic League" has been formed by negro leaders, with identically the same purpose. Each league has an executive committee of twenty and these committees are to meet frequently for conference. It is explicitly stated that these organizations are in no sense political, and members with political ambitions are not desired. The present number of whites enrolled in the Civic League is about two thousand; the similar colored organization has enrolled about one thousand three hundred. The movement has met with splendid success, and the number originally contemplated for the white league will have to be increased in view of the support which it has received. The lists when placed on file practically shaped, will consist of about three thousand five hundred whites and a substantially equivalent number of blacks.

The scheme has been in practical op-

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eration ever since Tuesday following Saturday, the day of the riot. It has been repeatedly tested in specific instances, and the success yielded has been beyond the most sanguine hopes of any one. The reasonableness of the proposition has appealed to many other points in the South, and similar movements have been inaugurated.

It is the purpose of the league to place very largely the responsibility for maintaining order among the blacks upon that race, giving them a fair and reasonable opportunity to accomplish this end and then hold them responsible for the result. None of the gentlemen who have been prominently connected with the league have any fear of the result.

The demand for impartial administration of justice, which the Civic League seeks to meet, has had its first notable satisfaction in the recent acquittal of a negro charged with an assault upon a woman who positively identified him as her assailant. By the instrumentality of Mr. Charles T. Hopkins the case was speedily brought to trial and a jury of the best citizens of Atlanta secured. The good character of the negro was sworn to by twenty-five of his white neighbors, and a verdict of not guilty was rendered in less than five minutes, although the woman unhesitatingly testified against him. The real criminal was discovered later. Mr. Booker Washington asserts that this is the first instance of a negro so accused and positively identified ever escaping death. The new efforts in the direction of fairness to the negro are also evidenced in the release of nineteen of the forty-two negroes indicted for complicity in the riots. The Civic League proposes to employ an attorney to assist when necessary in the defense of accused negroes.

The third movement is led by Mr. Clark Howell, editor of the Atlanta *Constitution,* and aims to provide industrial training for the black race. The initial step was taken by the Interdenominational Union of Colored Ministers who addressed a letter to the people of Georgia, through the pages of the *Constitution,* in which they pointed out that as over forty per cent of the population of the state are colored, some provision is needed for their industrial education. The recent appropriation by the legislature of $300,000 for the establishment of agricultural high schools, does not directly benefit them. They plead for schools of domestic science in the cities and a central industrial school specially for negroes. It is urged that "such an arrangement would be positively helpful to the relations between the races, since it would tend to turn the minds of both away from their antagonisms and furnish a point of harmonious coöperation between them." The movement for this purpose is meeting with favor and some $30,000 has already been subscribed.

The Small Holdings of Denmark

By Helen Campbell

THE passing of the old song and its chorus, "Uncle Sam is rich enough to give us all a farm," with the often recurring cry, "No free land left for the farmer," brings up by way of contrast the "small holdings," as they are known, of Denmark. The western American who, with only a quarter section, counts himself painfully limited as to space and opportunity, may well ponder a little over the facts as given out by the Minister of Agriculture for the little kingdom.

The small holdings system is by no means a recent matter, but the gradual outcome of a land tenure established on the basis of something like a common ownership of the soil. There are large estates, it is true, which might, as in England, absorb the small farms did not the law safeguard the integrity of the small farms and at the same time prevent their absorption into the great estates. But even Denmark has a land question, that of providing an increasing population with holdings enough to support them. The Danish rural population is an unusually enlightened one, far beyond the farmer in the remote hill villages of New England. Education is universal and of a high order and agriculture itself in its most advanced methods is thoroughly and ably taught in technical colleges, much more frequent than in our own country, where book farming is still profoundly scorned by the average small farmer. The national system of education not only turns out scientific farmers, but those so well educated as to take a deep and intel-

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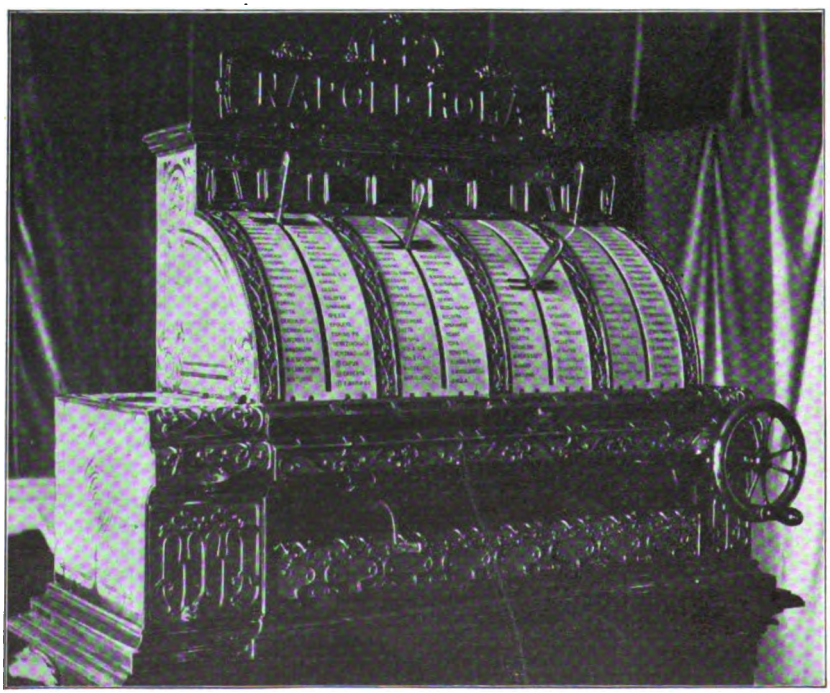
ligent interest in politics and contemporary history.

The Dane could never be called lazy, but he will not walk a mile if the telephone can be made to save him the exertion, and thus the telephone is on his farm, the electric light in his barns and pigsties, and every labor-saving implement supplied to his workers, this even for the smaller farms. There is no social ostracism for the farmer, the aristocracy, numerically a small body, decreasing steadily. It is many years since any new peers have been created, and among the rural bourgeoisie, there are no strongly marked social divisions. The farmer is so well represented in the government of the country that he has things almost entirely his own way, and even the small holder may be chairman of the rural associations in which he is interested, these associations corresponding in part to our granges but with more political power. The smaller the holding the greater is the proportionate profit, since with little land every inch is cultivated to the utmost, little or no labor is employed and all the owner makes is his own.

For the farmer with more land there is the ordinary laborer, wno earns about a hundred dollars a year and keep, or a hundred and fifty if he finds himself, these amounts varying slightly in different parts of the country. These are the lowest grade of workers, but they become in many cases proprietors also. Next above them comes a large and important class, in Danish *"Husmaend,"* who rent cottages with very little land attached, yet by intensive farming keep themselves and families comfortably, supplementing the income by hiring out at times to the farmers, or the *"husmaend"* may even cultivate a piece of land as large as that of the man for whom he works. There is no question of rural depopulation, for rural existence is not only possible but means steady progress for every faithful worker. It is not Utopia, but it would be difficult to find any country where work is done under better conditions or where the daily life has more sources of interest and pleasure, the social nature, strong in the Dane, preventing any possibility of the isolation and indifference to public issues in which too many of our small farmers allow themselves to live.



A NOVEL MACHINE FOR PRINTING AND ISSUING RAILWAY TICKETS
Invented by an Italian Count Piscicelli

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BOOKS AND READING

Education and Literature

The Psychological Principles of Education. By Herman Harrell Horne. New York. The Macmillan Company. Pp. xiii, 435. $1.75.

This is a thoroughly modern book. Parts of the subject matter were presented before the World's Congress of Arts and Sciences, at St. Louis, in 1904. Its general pedagogical point of view is indicated by the emphasis upon the modern principle, "It takes a race to educate a child." It does not claim the possibility of a universally valid science of education, but it seeks to show that a workable science can be achieved, which can be modified to fit individual variations by the wise teacher. Emphasis is placed upon the teacher. For Prof. Horne,

> "The teacher lives forever. On and on
> Through all the generations he shall preach
> The beautiful evangel."

And this evangel is fourfold: intellectual, emotional, moral, and religious. The author's treatment of this last topic is a promise of the day when education will be conceived in its larger sense, and will come into its own again.

The Art of the Singer. By W. J. Henderson. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.

After twenty-five years of careful study Mr. Henderson has given us in his latest book a valuable work for student, teacher and lover of singing. The fifteen chapters cover the subject in its various branches in a masterly manner and give for authority the great artists and masters past and present. It helps one discern between the faulty opinions expressed by musicians and the scientific self-evident facts which form the basis of all right thinking and practice in the line of singing. It would be difficult to find in Mr. Henderson's volume a single statement not founded on sound judgment and it is a work that may be heartily recommended as one offering both entertainment and profit.

First Steps in Mental Growth. By David R. Major. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. xiv, 360. $1.25 net.

The literature of concrete observation of childhood, pioneered by Preyer, and carried on by Sully and Baldwin, has a new addition in this volume by Prof. Major. It is the record of the author's personal observations of his child R. from birth to the end of the third year. These are the most significant years in the life of the individual, and the most obscure. Prof. Major has given us a careful and painstaking study. Of course it is always dangerous to generalize too broadly from the experiences of a single individual, but the author has constantly corrected his interpretations by reference to similar phenomena in the works of his predecessors in the field; and in not a few instances he has been able to correct some fallacious interpretations of the earlier writers. There are copious references to the literature of the subject of child study, and while the volume should prove interesting to the psychologist and trained educator, it will also be useful as a guide to the novice entering the field.

The Text of Shakespeare. By Thomas R. Lounsbury. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. xxii, 579. $2.00 net.

The prevailing aim of this volume is to rehabilitate and reinforce the reputation of Lewis Theobald, one of the wronged great names of scholarship. Ten or fifteen years ago Mr. John Churton Collins, in an essay entitled "The Porson of Shakespearean Criticism" did justice — belated but ample — to the learning, the insight, the judgment of this earliest of Shakespearean emendators and critics. He likewise gave Theobald's enemies their deserts in the form of a thoroughly rememberable drubbing. But apparently neither Mr. Collins's defense of Theobald, nor his defeat of Theobald's adversaries, satisfied Professor Lounsbury's sterner sense of justice, so he has taken the field with a larger force and heavier guns, and

> . . . Thrice he puts to rout the foe
> And thrice he slays the slain.

Everybody will be glad, however, of poor Theobald's supererogatory vindication. If he had done nothing more than change the meaningless "a table of greene fields" in Mistress Quickly's account of Falstaff's manner of dying, into "a babble of green fields," true alike to nature and to poetry — certainly what Shakespeare must have written — he would deserve an applausive essay every decade and a volume of appreciation and gratitude at least once a century.

The general reader will feel indebted to Professor Lounsbury for abundant answer to a puzzling question. Why is it, the general reader has often queried, that Lewis Theobald, who restored sense and beauty to a hundred places in Shakespeare's text, was raised to such bad eminence in Pope's Dunciad and still lives in almost universal memory as "piddling Tibbalds, a word-catcher that lives on syllables"?

Besides the history in detail of the Shakespearean campaigns Pope and his allies waged against Theobald, there is in Professor Louns-

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bury's book a very satisfactory summary of causes contributing to the corruption of Shakespeare's text. It contains, too, the results of extensive reading in forgotten fields of early sixteenth century literature, and some of these results are astonishingly important.

It is impossible to keep back the quite unnecessary word about Professor Lounsbury's style, it is so vivid and virile. There is nothing professory about it.

"The Place of Industries in Elementary Education," by Katharine E. Dopp, is a discussion of the principles under which, and the means by which the child may, in elementary education, receive that training which will fit him for his part in an industrial era. The first edition of this book was of service to that happily increasing number of teachers who recognize the wisdom of securing the child's development by his self-expression and through his natural activities; it has now a greater value in this revised and enlarged form, particularly on account of the chapter of "Practical Directions." (The University of Chicago Press. $1.00 net.)

"English Spelling Simplified" is a handy reference book containing the 300 amended spellings and over 3,500 suggested spellings, with a synopsis of the spelling reform movement. (Laird & Lee, 25 cents.)

Economics

The Railways, the Trusts and the People. By Frank Parsons, with the assistance of Ralph Albertson. Equity Series. Philadelphia: C. F. Taylor. 1906. Pp. 536. $1.50.

This book is written from the standpoint that Federal ownership and operation of the railroads is the only solution of the present evils of the railway situation in this country. The book is a compilation of materials from all sorts of sources, filled in with a general indictment of railroads and trusts. The authors appear to have been more or less swamped by their facts, and to have approached the subject from a partisan rather than a critical point of view. "One or two professors in Rockefeller's Oil University" come in for considerable abuse. One author has been told that the railroads distributed a million and a half copies of a book written by one of those professors. The authors also "have it on the highest authority that the cars" burned during the Pullman strike at Chicago "were burned by special deputies in pursuance of orders from the railway officers." A glowing account is given of the success of government ownership of railroads in other countries. The authors believe in "progressive taxes on incomes and a gradually developed assessment of the unearned increment in land values and other monopolies." New Zealand is the model recommended. It is admitted that the railroads should have the right to combine. The spoils system must be swept aside before we have government ownership. Railroads should be operated not to make money but to perform social service. Little good is expected from the regulation of railroads by Commissions. The book calls attention to many undoubted evils of the present operation of railroads, but gives no idea of other undoubted evils which inhere in government ownership. If government regulation fails, government ownership is on the cards, but absolute justice as between shippers can be purchased at such a price of diminished efficiency of service as to leave the shippers still unhappy.

While "In the Fire of the Heart," by Ralph Waldo Trine, author of "In Tune With the Infinite," consists of a series of essays on social questions, it is addressed to a much larger audience than would be reached by a scientific sociological study of current problems. It is plainly prepared for the lay rather than the professional reader. With a warmth born in deep conviction Mr. Trine diagnoses our present condition, finding imminent peril, due to the failure of the people to realize effective self-government. The popular discontent he attributes to the wresting of the rights of the people from them by capitalists and monopolists. The remedy lies in a wide-spread people's movement and in direct legislation. There are chapters on the benefits of organized labor and the public ownership of natural monopolies. He quotes liberally from Henry George and writers of his school. Despite a pessimistic diagnosis his prognosis is decidedly hopeful. One may not go with him to all his conclusions, but the book is a splendid tonic for those who in ignorance or indifference know no social problem, while it will stir the pulses and appeal to the consciences of all who love their race. (McClure, Phillips & Co., New York, $1 net.)

Any amount of good reading can be found between the covers of T. Baron Russell's "A Hundred Years Hence: The Expectations of an Optimist" (McClurg, $1.50 net). The revolution against aggrandized wealth feared by the thoughtless as well as the thoughtful does not take place in these optimistic reflections, where indeed labor troubles and the like find no place for their consideration; rulers are merely made just as if nothing more is needed to make a Utopia. War, of course, will have ceased with the century now current, for the excellent reason that common sense will have been acquired by the world as a whole by that time; and so on. Some of the details of social life are closely worked out, others are suggested, but where the book does not find agreement it will certainly provoke thought.

The problems which confront an industrial democracy have been discussed by J. Laurence Laughlin in a series of lectures, originally prepared for German audiences in Berlin. They necessarily contain some matter quite obvious to Americans, but the reasoning is so close and the conclusions reached so sound that nothing could well be spared. Perhaps their most apparent characteristic is a passion for truth in telling the story of America's greatness, placing truth, as Francis Lieber did, before that too customary patriotism which sees perfection only. "Industrial America" (Scribner, $1.25 net), then, is a book which may be read with profit by Americans as a needed corrective to the statements of campaign managers regarding our national affairs. The seven lectures comprised in the book have titles sufficiently explanatory:

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"American Competition with Europe," "Protectionism and Reciprocity," "The Labor Problem," "The Trust Problem," "The Railway Question," "The Banking Problem," and "The Present Status of Economic Thinking in the United States." This last is perhaps the least flattering to our national intelligence—and therefore the most necessary. Generally speaking, the book's entire fairness and careful accuracy, its calm scientific point of view and judicial attitude, and its true patriotism in suggesting no evil without pointing toward a means of correction, raise it to a most commendable level.

Barrett Wendell delivered a series of lectures in a literary course before the Sorbonne in Paris, four of which he has selected for publication under the title of "Liberty, Union, and Democracy: The National Ideals of America" (Scribner, $1.25 net). They treat of the three topics comprised in the title, after a prefatory paper on "The National Characteristics of America." Throughout the book Mr. Wendell preserves the New England point of view, tempered by that fine disbelief in democracy which he manifested in his "Literary History of America." He professes not to know what the introductory sentences of the Declaration of Independence mean, but almost in the same breath extolls Lincoln. But his interpretation of liberty in America as meaning merely the right of Americans to work out their own salvation without European intervention is just, as far as it goes—and unless a writer has some conviction that democracy is, ideally, a political expression of the Golden Rule, it is difficult to see how he can go further.

If any American is in need of information regarding the significance of a much abused word, he can find it in Charles F. Dole's "The Spirit of Democracy" (Crowell, $1.25 net). He portrays democracy as a rule of life, a counsel of perfection, a political ideal, and of the essence of the teaching of Jesus. The word to him has none of the individualistic significance so long associated with "Democrat" in the American partisan sense, but seems to follow rather the diagonal between the two opposing forces of individualism and collectivism. Mr. Dole holds democracy to find its essence in brotherliness, not merely between Americans in both public and private relations, but in a national spirit toward other nations which can be defined by no better word.

Fiction

Miss Marjorie Bowen has written a strong book, tragical from its opening chapter to its close, and called it "The Viper of Milan." It deals with Milan in the mid-fourteenth century, with Giar Galeazzo Maria Visconti at the height of his power. The earlier part of the book gathers together the forces of vengeance against this iron-hearted and completely unscrupulous monster, the latter half shows how they finally work out a righteous punishment, if it were ever in man's right to inflict it. The book is longer than the novel of the day, but it might have been still longer to advantage: the subject is a large one and the canvas might have been painted to correspond. (New York: McClure, Phillips & Co., $1.50.)

No form of fiction can be made more fascinating than a mystery story, and few contemporary authors stand more clearly defined in the public eye than those who have been successful in this field of endeavor. Elwyn Barron has now joined their ranks with "Marcel Levignet" (Duffield, $1.50), which is not only a tale in which a curious problem in regard to a malefactor remains unsolved until the last chapter, but a really delicious expression of phases of life in the French capital. The hero is a retired army officer who has also served as an officer of police, purely for love of the game. He falls in love with a beautiful and greatly abused woman of good family, who has later married a charming fellow. To meet and overcome the wiles of the wretch who threatens her happiness and integrity, Levignet devotes his life in the most literal sense.

Those who have been sorry to see Mrs. Clara Louise Burnham leave the paths of story-telling in order to write religious tracts will welcome a return to her early period in "The Opened Shutters" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., $1.50), a pretty and straightforward tale of youthful affection, told with great good humor and complete sympathy. There is, to be sure, one character in the book who preaches from texts supplied by the Scriptures and by Mrs. Eddy with entire impartiality, but the chief interest is still romantic rather than pious, and the story entirely readable.

Justice Miles Forman works out a combination of the society novel and detective story in "Buchanan's Wife" (Harper's, $1.50). He has caught the spirit of society deftly. Buchanan is the sort of man who should never marry, and his wife's misery with him has made her turn with fervor to the lover of her youth. The melancholy and half-mad husband disappears, and his fate remains in doubt through two-thirds of the narrative. Meanwhile his wife identifies a body as his, and marries the man of her later choice. Thereupon Buchanan comes to light in the guise of an old tramp whose memory is gone. The story closes in a burst of melodrama.

Stanley J. Weyman has added to the list of books we wish we might read again for the first time, in his "Chippinge Borough" (McClure, Phillips & Co., $1.50). It is a piece of work that glows with life. It is a historical story of the Reform Bill in England, of the fall of the rotten borough system, with pictures, faithful in every detail, of the life and characteristics of that era of change. Through all runs a clean, lively love story, with a plot so skilfully furnished with dramatic climaxes as to make you forget its art entirely.

One learns to expect almost any kind of style, together with the utmost freedom from respect for the laws of our language, when the covers of a modern novel are opened. In this particular there is no disappointment in "The Victory," by Molly Elliot Seawell (D. Appleton & Co., $1.50). Through the easy-going language it is possible to pick up the story of a family divided by the Civil War and the highly ethical plot of killing off the inconvenient husband to make way for the inevitable lover. Withal there are charming pictures of southern home life.

"The Robberies Company, Ltd.," by Nelson Lloyd (Scribner's, $1.50), is an ingenious com-

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bination of crime and philanthropy. A group of the most brilliant men in the world undertake to show by well-arranged thefts that property is unsafe and useless and thus to arouse the public to a general readjustment of values. To this end they enter a rich man's home and make him a prisoner, announce that he is to be married and get over $100,000 worth of wedding gifts. These they return and the rich man joins the company. It is a highly improbable story without the convincing power of Jules Verne. If it were just a little more satirical or just a little more dead in earnest it would be stronger. As it is, it is a readable skit.

It is not easy to classify Harold MacGrath's work. It always possesses a note of originality but too frequently gets lost in the complications of a plot which becomes increasingly improbable. His latest volume, "Half a Rogue" (Bobbs-Merrill Company, $1.50), is rather more compact and reasonable than some of his other work. It takes one into the life of the stage, and into the complicated world of politics and trades unions. Like the best of his books, however, it holds one's attention to the end and makes an agreeable addition to the literature of intellectual recreation.

"The Cruise of the Violetta," by Arthur Colton (Holt, $1.50), belongs to that class of literature which is neither novel, story, correspondence nor history. There never was a book that had less unity for plot, for it abounds in clever touches, and some of its situations have humor. Its chief character is a woman of mature years from a little town in Ohio who, finding herself unexpectedly rich at the death of her husband, buys a yacht and sails around the Pacific as a sort of knight errant missionary and general investigator.

A collection of Sewall Ford's stories in "Truegate of Mogador" (Scribner's, $1.50) makes good reading for a winter's night, particularly the opening story with its description of the climate of Africa. The stories center about a New England town on the coast, but the locality is not at all essential to the stories. You are more interested in the people than in the place.

William DeMorgan is not a well-known name in literature, but is likely to be more familiar. His novel "Joseph Vance" bears the subtitle "An Ill-written Autobiography" (Henry Holt & Co., $1.50), but it belongs to the class of David Copperfield. In fact, there is something of Dickens-like power of sentiment in the volume. This, with its leisurely method of procedure, its lingering over details and its subjection of plot to human interest, gives the book real individuality. There is running through it too a strain of idealism which makes this account of the rise of the fortunes of a poor boy, the son of a drunken laborer, to wealth and professional skill, grip on the reader's heart.

Every time a reviewer picks up Mr. Marion Crawford's annual novel he is impressed anew with the man's workmanship. Year after year Mr. Crawford has written stories about Italy and yet the English and American reading publics do not seem to tire of reading them. "A Lady of Rome" (Macmillan Company, $1.50) is a rather exceptional story in plot in that it deals with honorable characters who broke the Seventh Commandment years before the story opens, and are endeavoring to live exemplary lives. And they all, husband, wife and lover, succeed. Mr. Crawford is a master of technique. He knows how to tell a story and how to give true values to the various elements in the plot. One could wish that some of the newer aspirants to fame as novelists would study him and his methods and his clean imaginations.

Among the interesting new books issued by Laird & Lee are, "By the Eternal," Opie Read's latest story, a page from unwritten history. The author has built his plot around the character of Andrew Jackson. The story is witty and humorous and is full of the quaint philosophies which have made the writer's books so popular. The mechanical construction of the book is a delight to the eye.

The hardihood which has turned the western wilderness into a spot worth living in is rather crudely portrayed by Willis George Emerson in "The Builders" (Forbes & Co., $1.50). Speculation in mines and land and a collapsed and resuscitated boom form the background to a love story. The author has the national habit of story-telling so strongly fixed that he does not hesitate to interrupt his narrative for the purpose of relating more or less hoary jests but, apart from this, his book will do for an idle hour.

It is a curious sign of the times that, where Henry George the elder satisfied himself with the most serious of economic writing, Henry George, Jr., should deliver himself of a novel, "The Romance of John Bainbridge" (Macmillan, $1.50), both having in view the awakening of their readers to certain wrongs in the body politic. In the case of the younger man, it is corporate ownership of public utilities that works the moral havoc in men's breasts, and with the fine optimism which seems to characterize the George family the man who profits most by the corruptibility of the people's servants is made to suffer a late repentance and turn back to the city the enormously valuable franchises he had won through unscrupulous bribery. It is a well-told story, unusually free from amateurishness for a first novel, and quite certain to serve its purpose as an eye-opener to those who will read and credit it.

George Moore's "Memoirs of My Dead Life" (D. Appleton & Co., $1.50 net), has been expurgated to some extent by the publishers. It could have been improved by the further omission of at least two of its stories and its introduction with Mr. Moore's outrageous defense for writing books which tax the postoffice inspector's conscience. We are not particularly prudish, but this volume with all its distinction of style and diction seems to us a disgrace to English literature. The immorality of Tom Jones is at least masculine; that of George Moore is simply Parisian. And what is worse he believes that it is morality!

Duffield & Company publish in book form Windsor McCay's "Little Nemo in Slumberland." The story has already appeared in the comic supplements to Sunday newspapers and it is to be classed as better than most monstrosities. It really shows something like imagination and the pictures are never vulgar.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Casualties.—December 19.—Four white men and fifteen negroes killed by a boiler explosion on the Mississippi River steamer W. T. Scovill.

—December 23.—Nine men killed and thirty-seven seriously injured in a collision between a Minneapolis, St. Paul & Sault Ste. Marie passenger train and a switch engine in the railroad yards at Enderlin, N. D.

—December 30.—Fifty-three persons killed and more than sixty injured in a wreck on the Baltimore & Ohio railroad at Terra Cotta, three miles from Washington, D. C.

—January 2.—Thirty-three lives lost and fifty-five persons injured in a collision between two passenger trains on the Rock Island railroad near Alma, Kansas.

—January 9.—Thirty-four lives lost by an explosion in the Eliza furnaces of the Jones & Laughlin steel works, Pittsburg.

Congress.—December 14.—The House passed the Legislative Appropriation Bill with an amendment raising the salaries of the Vice-President, the Speaker and members of the cabinet to $12,000 a year. The proposition to raise the pay of members of Congress defeated.

—December 19.—Appointment of Lloyd C. Griscom to be ambassador to Italy and of Henry White as ambassador to France confirmed by the Senate. . . . President Roosevelt in a special message stated reasons for dismissal of negro troops.

Deaths.—December 14.—Jeremiah Curtin, linguist and philologist, aged 66.

—December 19.—Charles Caldwell McCabe, Methodist Episcopal bishop, aged 70.

—December 26.—Harrison Parkman, who first brought alfalfa from South America and planted it in the United States, aged 73.

—December 28.—Alexander J. Cassatt, president of the Pennsylvania railroad, aged 67.

—January 2.—George A. Bell, brigadier-general U. S. A., retired.

—January 4.—Ernest H. Crosby, author and social reformer, aged 50.

Education.—December 31.—John D. Rockefeller gave the University of Chicago $2,917,000, largely for the endowment fund.

Election.—January 2.—Charles M. Floyd, Republican, elected Governor of New Hampshire by the State Legislature.

Insurance.—December 17.—George Burnham, counsel for the Mutual Reserve Life Insurance Company, sentenced in New York to two years' imprisonment.

—December 21.—Presidents of nearly thirty life insurance companies meet in New York and take steps for organizing an association to regulate the life-insurance business.

—December 28.—George W. Perkins, former vice-president of the New York Life Insurance Company and partner in the firm of J. Pierpont Morgan & Co., and Charles S. Fairchild, ex-president of the New York Security and Trust Company, indicted for forgery in the third degree, by the grand jury, which accompanied the indictment with a presentment stating its conviction that the men indicted acted solely for the benefit of the stockholders and not for pecuniary advantage to themselves.

IT'S COLD IN THE NORTHWEST ROOM
Ralph Wilder in the Chicago *Record-Herald*

Labor.—December 18.—Oscar Straus, Secretary of Commerce and Labor, ruled that a state is not bound by a contract labor law, but may encourage immigration by payment of passage money and guarantees of labor and good homes.

—December 19.—The United States Steel Corporation announced that the wages of its 3,000 employes in the Joliet mills would be increased January 1, 1907. In Lawrence, Massachusetts, 6,000 employes in the Pacific mills and 1,200 in the Everett to receive increased wages of about 7½ per cent. The Pepperill Manufacturing Company of Biddeford, Maine, advanced wages of 3,000 employes about 5 per cent.

—December 21.—The Illinois Steel Company announced an increase in wages.

—December 23.—Strike declared on the Atlantic system of the Southern Pacific Railroad by the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Engineers; 400 men quit work on Louisiana and Texas lines.

Land Frauds.—December 20.—Bartlett Richards, W. G. Comstock, Charles C. Jameson and Aquilla Triplett found guilty by the federal court of extensive land frauds in Sheridan and Cherry

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STILL ON THE WAR PATH!
Donahey, in the Cleveland *Plain Dealer*

counties, Nebraska, with a penalty of imprisonment of two years and a fine of $1,000 on each count. The men named were found guilty on thirty-six counts.

Legislation.—December 31:—Federal Judge Walter Evans declared the Employers' Liability Act unconstitutional.

Municipal.—December 26.—Former Supervisor August Puls, of Milwaukee, pleaded guilty to two indictments charging bribery and was fined $700. . . . At Easton, Pennsylvania, because of poor service given by municipal lighting plant, so that women and children are not considered safe on the streets at night, leading citizens and business firms petitioned the select council for permit for private corporation to undertake the street lighting.

Navy.—December 15.—The cruiser Montana launched at Newport News.

Negro troops.—December 14.—The President ordered a court martial trial of Major Penrose and Captain Macklin of the Twenty-fifth Infantry, U. S. A., on a charge of neglect of duty in not preventing the raid on Brownsville, Texas, by members of three negro companies stationed at Fort Brown.

—December 22.—President Roosevelt ordered a new investigation of the Brownsville affair, to be made by Assistant Attorney-General Purdy.

—December 25.—Three soldiers of the Ninth Cavalry, U. S. A., colored, arrested for participation in a riot on a street car in Leavenworth, Kansas.

Nobel Peace Prize.—December 20.—John Mitchell, president of the United Mine Workers of America, and Marvin Hughitt, president of the Chicago & North-Western Railway Company, consented to serve, at President Roosevelt's request, on the board of trustees of the Nobel peace prize.

Peace Palace.—January 4.—Andrew Carnegie gave $750,000 for construction of a building for the Bureau of American Republics. Congress has appropriated $200,000 and the republics a *pro rata* share of the cost.

Race Conflict.—December 25.—A race war in Kemper county, Mississippi, caused the death of two white men and ten negroes.

—December 28.—The committee of business men appointed to investigate the recent race riots in Atlanta, Georgia, published its report. It blames the "tough element" of the white population for the rioting, and states that honest and innocent persons were the victims. The committee has distributed $10,000 given by business men to aid the negro victims. . . . The Japanese Exclusion League, supported by the labor unions, opened a campaign to extend the exclusion of the Japanese from the public schools throughout the state.

Railroads.—December 26.—The attorney-general of Minnesota brought suit in St. Paul for an injunction to prevent the proposed issue of $60,000,000 stock by the Great Northern Railroad.

—December 27.—Suits filed in the Circuit Court of Springfield, Illinois, by State's Attorney Hatch, against the Chicago & Alton Railroad Company to recover penalties amounting to $500,000 for alleged unjust discrimination in rates.

—December 28.—The Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway Company announced the establishment of a pension system for their employes.

—January 4.—The Interstate Commerce Commission began inquiry into the Harriman system of railroads.

—January 9.—Attorney-General Hadley of Missouri filed suit in the Supreme Court of that state to dissolve the alleged merger of the Gould railroads and revoke the charters of several of their subsidiary corporations....The federal grand jury at Los Angeles returned two indictments against the Santa Fe Railroad Company, on charges of granting concessions and rebates.

Senatorial.—January 9.—A resolution signed by twenty-eight members of the Texas legislature for investigation into the relations of United States Senator J. W. Bailey with the Standard Oil Company, introduced in the state house of representatives.

Trusts.—December 16.—Commissioner of Corporations Garfield began an investigation of the operations of the lumber trust.

—January 3.—In the case against the Standard Oil Company Judge Landis denied the amnesty plea made by the company and sustained eight of the ten indictments for receiving rebates returned by the federal grand jury in Chicago last August.

Porto Rico

Religion.—December 21.—The Supreme Court decided against the government in reference to the ownership of Catholic church property. An appeal to the United States Supreme Court taken.

Cuba

Legislation.—December 24.—Governor Magoon signed a decree appointing a commission to revise the laws of Cuba.

Ecuador

President.—December 24.—The National Assembly elected General Eloy Alfaro president.

Mexico

Ambassador.—December 14.—Enrique Creel, governor of Chihuahua, appointed Mexican ambassador to the United States.

British Empire

Ambassador U. S.—December 17.—James Bryce accepted appointment as ambassador to the United States.

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Casualty.—December 28.—In a railroad collision near Arbroath, on the North British Railroad, caused indirectly by a heavy snowstorm, sixteen persons were killed, and over thirty injured.

Death. — December 30. — Baroness Burdett Coutts, philanthropist, and the first woman who received the freedom of the city of London, aged 92.

Education Bill.—December 12.—The House of Commons rejected all the amendments made by the House of Lords by a vote of 416 to 107.

—December 20.—The House of Lords, after ten months of debate, rejected the Education Bill.

—December 20.—Prime Minister Campbell-Bannerman announced in the House of Commons that the government had decided to withdraw the Education Bill.

Transvaal.—December 12.—Letters patent issued granting a constitution to the Transvaal. [See "Events."]

Canada

Municipal Ownership.—December 19.—Manitoba voted by a large majority for public ownership of telephones.

India

Home Rule.—December 26.—At the opening of the Indian National Congress, Dadabhl Naoroji, formerly a member of the British Parliament, advocated the rights of the Indians as British subjects to govern themselves, self-government having been given the Boers while India was still without it. He urged the raising of a patriotic fund to educate Indians and carry on the campaign in England. The speech was received with great applause from the 10,000 delegates present.

—December 27.—The Indian National Congress passed a resolution expressing indignation that Indians should be denied the rights of citizens.

France

Separation Law.—December 13.—Summonses issued charging illegal assemblies in sixty-nine churches in Paris.

—December 16.—Disorder in various places in the provinces accompanied enforcement of the law.

—December 19.—To date, thirty-four archbishops and bishops, forty grand seminaries and thirty-one small ones had been evacuated. Cardinal Richard ordered the suppression of all public midnight masses on Christmas eve.

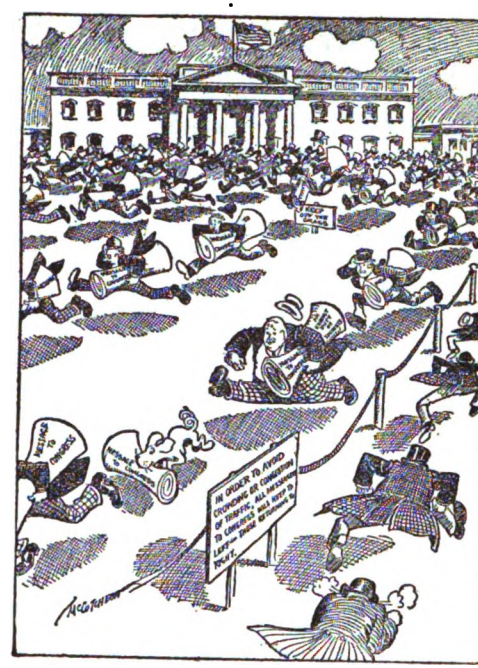
—December 21.—By a vote of 410 to 166 the Chamber of Deputies adopted the bill regulating the conditions of public worship in France.

—December 28.—The Senate by a vote of 187 to 87 accepted the principle of the new public worship bill.

Spain

Algeciras Convention.—December 31.—The formal signing of the Algeciras convention took place at Madrid. The ratification of the United States contained the reservation that that country does not accept the obligation of responsibility to carry out the provisions of the protocol.

Emigration.—December 24.—Nine thousand inhabitants of the town of Bejar, Salamanca, having decided to emigate in a body because of lack of employment, the offer of the presidents of Uruguay and Nicaragua to supply ships and funds was accepted.



THE PRESIDENT SENDS A FEW MESSAGES TO CONGRESS
McCutcheon in the Chicago *Tribune*

Italy

Vatican.—December 16.—Troops guarded the Vatican from mob violence on the part of anticlericals and others who arranged for a demonstration of sympathy with France.

Belgium

Congo Free State—December 14.—The Chamber of Deputies by a vote of 127 against 30 approved the proposal that Belgium accept the terms of King Leopold's will bequeathing the Congo Independent State to Belgium, with the stipulation that the royal private domains there be maintained integrally after its annexation.

German Empire

Death. — January 9. — Princess Alexandria Mary Wilhelmina of Saxe-Altenburg, former Queen of Hanover, aged 89.

Prussian Poland.—January 3.—A member of the Prussian house of lords—a rich Polish landowner, Von Koscielski; a member of the lower house of the Prussian diet, and 29 other persons put on trial by the government charged with having taken part in a public meeting without the consent of the government. The renewal of the Polish nationalist agitation is the cause of this severity.

Reichstag.—December 13.—The Emperor dissolved the reichstag because it refused to uphold

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his colonial policy by voting the appropriation of $7,530,000 asked by the government for expenses of the war in German Southwest Africa.

German Southwest Africa

Peace Compact.—December 28.—A peace pact between the German forces and the warring Hereroes signed in Damaraland. [See "Events."]

Austria

Universal Suffrage.—December 21.—The upper house passed the universal suffrage bill by a large

A GOOD START, BUT CAN HE GET OVER THE BUMPS?
Webster, in the Chicago *Inter-Ocean*

majority. It also passed a bill limiting to 180 the number of life members of that house appointable by the crown.

Hungary

Death.—December 26.—Eugene Zichy, statesman and Central Asian explorer, aged 69.

Servia

Anti-dynastic demonstrations.—December 26.—Members of the National Assembly openly expressed sentiments antagonistic to the present Karageorgevitch dynasty. The debates on the loan bill developed into a riotous demonstration.

Sweden

Regency.—December 14.—Prince Gustav assumed regency because of King Oscar's illness.

Russian Empire

Assassination.—December 22.—Count Alexis Ignatieff, former governor-general of Kiev, assassinated at Tver.

—December 28.—General Litvinoff, governor of the province of Akmolinsk, assassinated by unknown men in broad daylight in the street in Omsk, Asiatic Russia.

—January 3.—Major-General Von der Launitz, prefect of police of St. Petersburg, shot and killed at the Institute of Experimental Medicine, by a terrorist, name unknown.

—January 9.—General Vladimir Pavloff, judge advocate general of the war department, shot and killed while strolling in the garden of the chief military court building in St. Petersburg.

Cabinet.—January 3.—At a council held at Tsarskoe Selo it was decided to abolish the offices of minister of war and minister of marine, staff committees to be henceforth in charge of these departments.

Education.—December 16.—The new Polish school system, with permission to establish private schools with Polish teachers, has resulted in the formation of eight hundred schools with an attendance of seventy-five thousand Polish children.

Navy.—December 24.—Vice-Admiral Nebogatoff and five other naval officers condemned to death for surrendering to the Japanese at the battle of the Sea of Japan, May 28, 1905. The sentences were accompanied with a promise of a petition for clemency. Four other officers sentenced to short terms of imprisonment.

Reaction.—December 28.—"The Flying Section" of the secret police reported to have made 588 arrests in St. Petersburg during the last three days.

—December 31.—The act of a traitor caused the arrest of over one hundred leaders and members of the St. Petersburg military organization of the Social Democrats.

Persia

Constitution.—December 30.—The Shah and the crown prince signed the new constitution. [See "Events."]

Shah.—January 8.—Muzaffar Ed Din Mirza, the Shah, died.

Morocco

Raisuli Deposed.—December 27.—Sid Mohammed Abbas, minister of war, read to the neighboring chiefs a letter from the Sultan deposing Raisuli from the governorship of the Tangier district, and calling upon the tribesmen to submit to the Moroccan foreign office.

—December 28.—Raisuli refused to resign governorship and prepared for war. Ben Ghazi appointed pasha of Tangier.

—January 2.—Raisuli upon hearing that the minister of war had decided to send 600 men and a detachment of mountain artillery to Arzilla, the town in possession of Raisuli, sent thither all the prisoners confined in the stronghold at Zinat, and then ordered the gates closed against the Sultan's troops.

—January 6.—Zinat, Raisuli's stronghold, destroyed by fire and taken by the Sultan's troops. Raisuli and his 700 followers eluded capture and reached the mountains.

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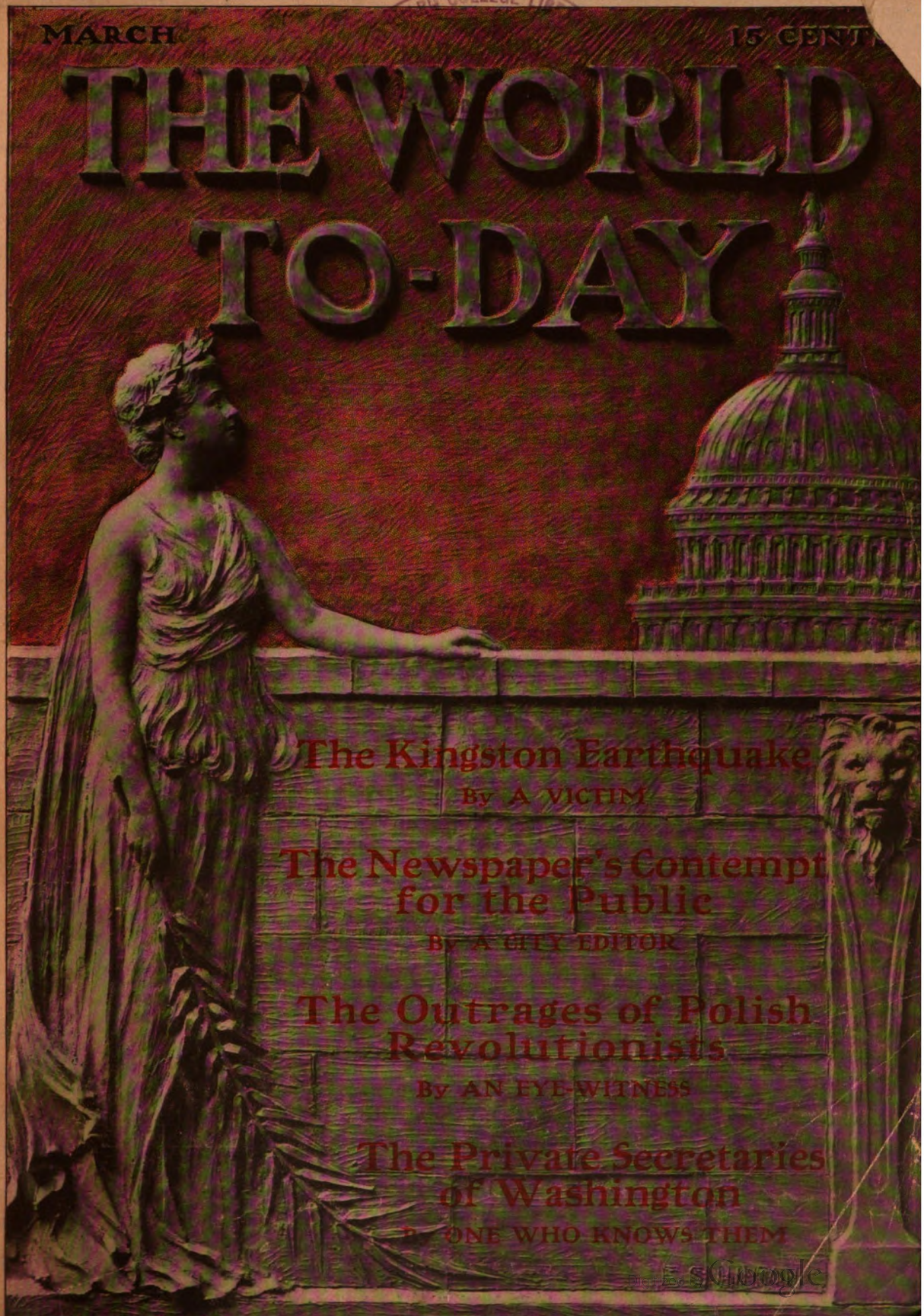
MARCH 15 CENTS

THE WORLD TO-DAY



The Kingston Earthquake

By A VICTIM

The Newspaper's Contempt for the Public

By A CITY EDITOR

The Outrages of Polish Revolutionists

By AN EYE-WITNESS

The Private Secretaries of Washington

By ONE WHO KNOWS THEM

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Matchless for the Complexion.

Not afraid of Chaps!

OF ALL SCENTED SOAPS PEARS' OTTO OF ROSE IS THE BEST.

"All rights secured."

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SPIRIT OF THE MONTH

CONSERVATISM

The Vatican seeks to save its dignity while French Bishops obey French law

Germany prefers the Kaiser and the navy to social democracy and inaction

Congress wards off the big stick with investigating committees

Great Britain and America refuse to make hysterical discourtesy a source of national dispute

Humanity prefers horrors to safety devices

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MRS. POTTER PALMER

Mrs. Palmer has been prominent of late in that she opened her house on the Lake Shore Drive, Chicago, for a meeting of the National Civic Federation, at which several hundred representatives of capital and labor were present. Mrs. Palmer was President of the Board of Lady Managers of the World's Columbian Exposition

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The World To-Day

VOLUME XII MARCH, 1907 NUMBER 3

Our New Battle of the Wilderness

FOR the past two years reform has been riding a rising curve. We have rejoiced at the fall of rascals, and rascals, in the zeal of self-preservation, have assisted their fellows to fall. We have had municipal ownership championed as a panacea for municipal corruption; we have had Socialists foretell their triumph; we have seen Mr. Hughes climb into a governorship over the insurance companies; we have strained the muscles of our optimism in trying to keep up with President Roosevelt's pursuit of the millennium.

Now we are beginning to see the beginnings of that reaction which dogs strenuous reform.

Germany has preferred the Kaiser to social democracy; the Irish labor party has refused to be stampeded into Socialism; state legislatures have marooned their reforming members; and enthusiasm for municipal ownership has shared in the vicissitudes of Chicago traction.

The revival is over, and the men who sat on the anxious seat are watching each other out of the corners of their eyes.

* * *

If one only looks at the surface of things there is ground for discouragement. In fact, when it comes to taking reformers seriously, your average man is always likely to be pessimistic. After the spasm of goodness is over he believes all things will return and be as before.

Therein your average man is mistaken.

The little waves run up and down the beach, but the tide comes in.

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Reform may not be quite as vigorous during the next twelve months as it has been during the last year, but we shall never go back to the pit from which our muckraking friends and our reformers dragged us.

We have made a little excursion over into Canaan and have brought back some of the fruits of the land. We met a few giants, but we have enough Joshuas and Calebs to lead us over Jordan.

At any rate they will keep us from going back into the desert.

* * *

Those respectable gentlemen and institutions who during the past twelve months have found themselves rather harried by the soldiers of reform, both regular and irregular, would do well not to over-estimate this conservative movement.

It is the poorest sort of strategy to mistake a change of base for a retreat. To push conservatism too vigorously in the hope of turning it into reaction will be simply to make moderate reformers into radicals.

* * *

There is a Presidential election next year.

* * *

We have had a good many periods of agitation, but in the history of the United States there never was a time when Americans took reform more seriously.

It is hard, of course, for reformers to work together; they are too keen upon reforming each other.

But your plain citizen when he once has made up his mind to step forward is about as stolid a progressive as was Grant in the Battle of the Wilderness. He expects to have his opponents defeat him in skirmishes, even in an occasional battle, but he declines to regard any such defeat as crushing. He brings up his reserves, he trains new levies, he takes his time, and he will beat genius itself by the sheer weight of numbers.

* * *

On the whole we are glad of this momentary lull in agitation. It gives us time to rid ourselves of our Mayor Weavers and our other hysterics, to close up our ranks, and to set our drill sergeants training our raw recruits.

For your plain citizen proposes to fight it out on this line of reform if it takes all summer—and all winter too.

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WILLIAM LOEB, JR.—SECRETARY TO THE PRESIDENT

He is the custodian of the President's secrets, the mouthpiece for all that is to be given out officially. He has an inherent genius for doing and saying the right thing at the right time, as well as a keen eye for a scorpion in a bed of roses

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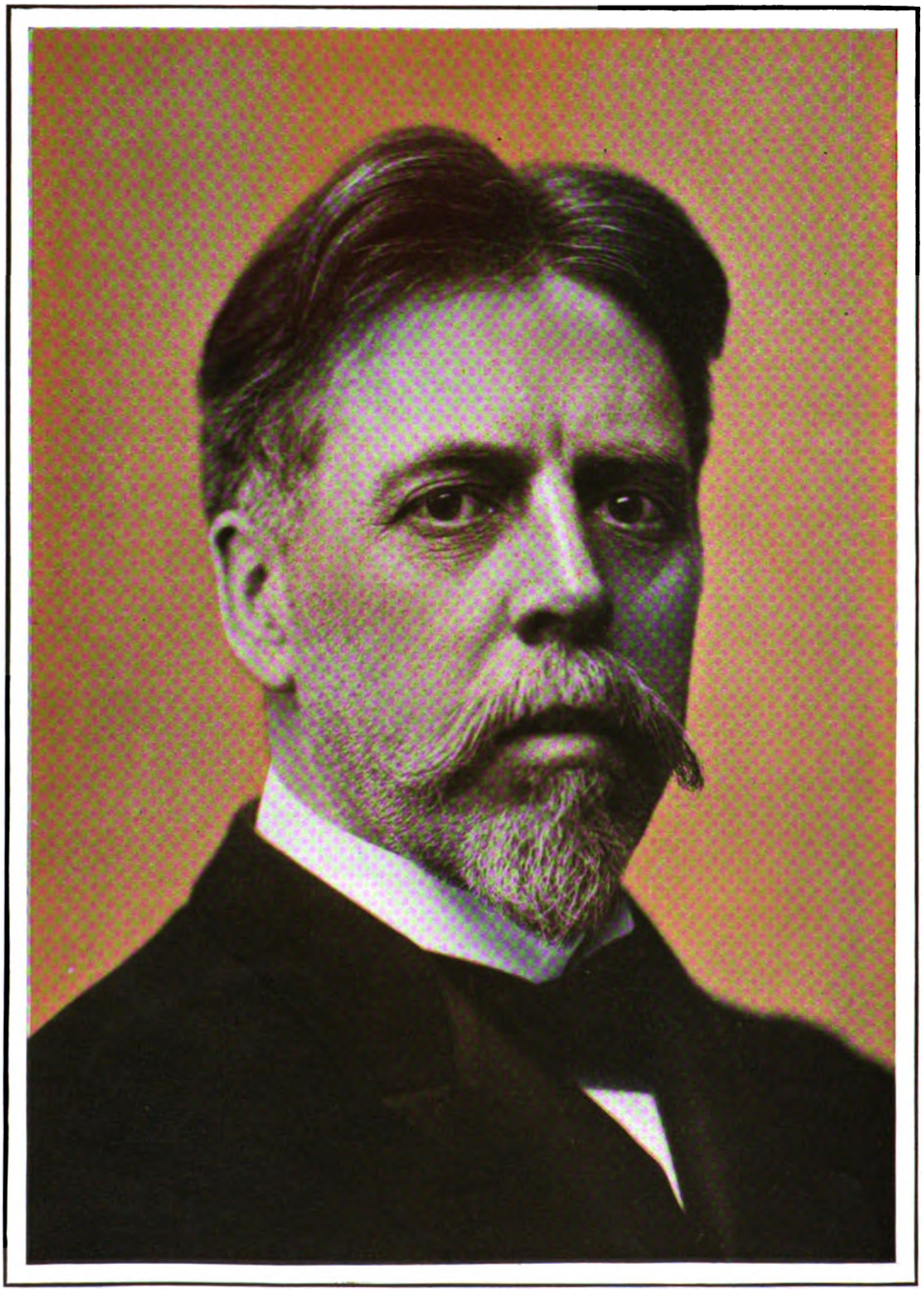

L. WHITE BUSBEY—SECRETARY TO SPEAKER CANNON

Formerly one of the best known political writers of the Middle West. A thoroughly honest man who has a keen knowledge of political ways and means and a trained understanding of men and measures

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H. O. WEAVER—SECRETARY TO POSTMASTER-GENERAL CORTELYOU

A man who has a genius for absorption. In each department in which he has served as secretary to Mr. Cortelyou he has been better posted in all the details than anyone. He is to go with his chief into the treasury office on March 4. He has completed a five-year law course and has been admitted to the bar

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FRED W. CARPENTER—SECRETARY TO MR. TAFT

A man of gentle, quiet courtesy who was a stenographer in a San Francisco law office before he went to the Philippines with Judge Taft

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Foreign Affairs

The Kingston Earthquake

The city of Kingston, Jamaica, which has undergone several destructive experiences, has again been largely destroyed by an earthquake followed by fire. On the afternoon of January 14 a sudden shock caused the instant destruction of hundreds of people, mainly negroes, and the collapse of a large number of buildings. The ensuing conflagration, as in the case of San Francisco, finished what the earthquake began, and the entire business section of this beautiful city became a mass of ruins. Of a population of some sixty thousand, including about one hundred Americans, it is estimated that from six hundred to eight hundred probably were killed. Only two per cent of the inhabitants are white and but few of these lost their lives. Sir James Ferguson, who had been governor of South Australia, New Zealand and Bombay, and ex-postmaster-general of Great Britain, was instantly killed. With recollections of the fate of the former capital, Port Royal, a tidal wave was feared, but the afflicted city was spared this, although some portions of the shore subsided into the sea.

Aid From the United States

Promptly on receipt of the news of the disaster at Kingston, Rear-Admiral Evans, stationed at Guantanamo, Cuba, one hundred and thirty miles from Kingston, with the North Atlantic fleet, ordered the battle-ships Missouri and Indiana, under Admiral Davis, to proceed thither. President Roosevelt as promptly ordered two navy supply ships to follow, and Congress next day authorized this action. As no British ships were anywhere within reach of Jamaica, this immediate relief was much needed. The scarcity of food and medicine and hospital shelter was increasing the suffering of the people, and the friendly aid was gladly received by the people and appreciated in England. Assistance was given also by the marines in extricating bodies from the ruins, policing the streets and generally caring for those in distress. Some fancied slight, however, incensed the governor of Jamaica, Sir Alfred Swettenham, and he curtly requested the Americans to withdraw. Admiral Davis lost no time in doing so and took with him the supplies so freely tendered the stricken people. The discourteous and arrogant action of the governor aroused a storm of protest from the British people, the London dailies speaking of it as a deplorable blunder. January 29 Governor Swettenham formally withdrew his letter to Rear-Admiral Davis and ex-

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HE THOUGHT IT WAS A "BLARSTED EAGLE"
W. A. Rogers, in *Harper's Weekly*

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REAR-ADMIRAL DAVIS, U. S. N.
Whom Governor Swettenham asked to leave Kingston

pressed regret for having written it. The events of these terrible days are described on page 314 by Broughton Brandenburg. Nearly a month after the earthquake the mayor of the stricken city, Charles Tait, died from the effects of injuries received at that time.

International Common Sense

The singular situation which developed at Kingston might have given rise to warm diplomatic negotiations, but the good sense of both nations involved was in evidence. The Americans had themselves known something of the tremendous nervous earthquake that attends a physical earthquake, and easily attributed the governor's discourtesy to overstrained nerves. Certainly two great nations can hardly afford to get excited over matters of this sort. And to this may be added the apparent equal sanity shown by the Japanese with relation to the San Francisco affair. Only there is this difference: America does not suspect Great Britain of having designs on the Philippines and Hawaii. Justly or unjustly, a good many Americans do have that suspicion of Japan.

French Income Tax Scheme

One of the radical reforms to which M. Clemenceau pledged himself upon entering office, has materialized in a bill introduced into the Chamber of Deputies, February 7. It created great excitement when made public, the Socialists being particularly delighted with the proposed measure. If enacted, it will be a readjustment of the French fiscal system. The door, window, poll and other direct taxes will be dropped and taxation based upon incomes will be substituted. Day laborers will be practically exempt. Upon incomes of over $1,000 a year the tax will be progressive up to four per cent of the total. Even the revenue from government rentes, in which French savings are so largely invested, is to be taxed when the total income of the holder exceeds the stated minimum. Russian securities will particularly feel the effect of the new system, if it is inaugurated, for all foreign securities are to be heavily taxed, and France holds from $1,600,000,000 to $2,000,000,000 of Russian notes. It is estimated that only half a million families would be affected by the higher progressive tax, the other nine million three hundred thousand having incomes of less than $1,000 yearly and therefore liable only to the lower rate of taxation.

THE END OF THE JAMAICAN INCIDENT
Morris, in the Spokane *Spokesman-Review*

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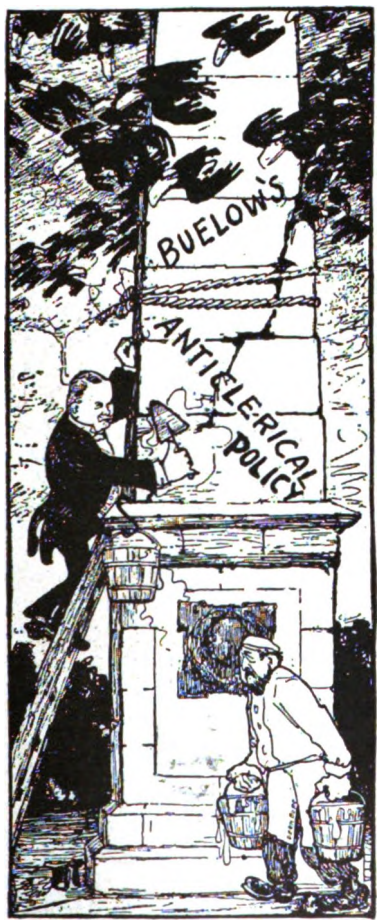
The German Elections

Since the writing of the article of Mr. Ogg, which appears on page 257 of this issue, the complete returns from both the first and second balloting have come in. These show decided change in the alignment of the various parties in the new reichstag which is to meet February 19. The Social Democrats, who since 1903 have had seventy-nine seats, will now have but forty-three, although the number of votes cast by the party was increased by 240,238. Their immense loss in the kingdom of Saxony, where they failed to hold sixty-four seats, has occasioned much surprise. The Centrists or Clericals have gained four seats and the Progressives twelve, the Conservatives seven and the National Liberals five.



A TOTTERING PILLAR

Buelow—"More mortar, Dernburg! If I can only stop up these cracks, the thing may stand yet."

—*Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)

AUGUSTINE BIRRELL
The new Secretary for Ireland

The general result is that the government obtains the Conservative-Liberal majority which it desired and can count upon support of its colonial policy. Nevertheless it will still have the Clerical party to reckon with. The Catholic organ, the Germania, pointing out that the Center is still the determining party in the reichstag, having 108 seats — twenty-seven more than any other party — says that Chancellor Von Bulow, whose "electoral cry was 'Down with the Center,' now resembles a man who when his leg is broken, joyfully exclaims, 'It is a good thing it is not my neck'!"

Problems Still Unsolved

It is this preponderance of the Clericals that causes considerable questioning as to the probability of the chancellor being able to retain his position. His policy is still a difficult one and his age and infirmities are against his success. The popular ovation he received and the enthusiasm referred to in the Kaiser's triumphal speech on the evening of Febru-

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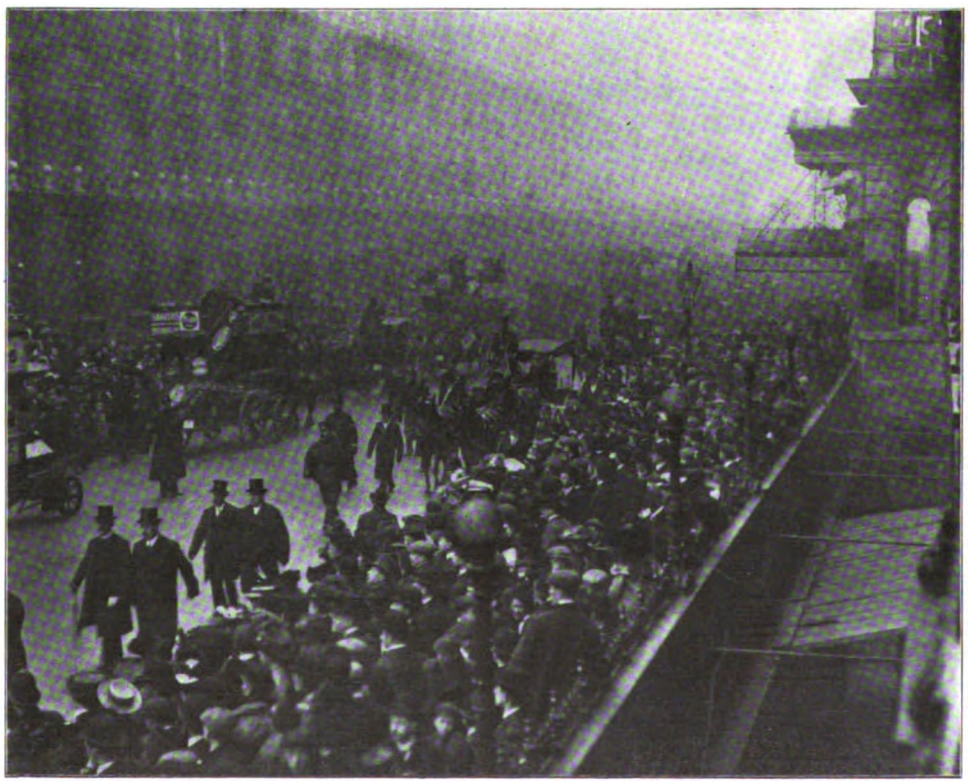
ary 5, after the returns of the second balloting were known, may be but a temporary outburst of patriotism as the emperor himself recognized. As the radical newspapers point out, three million two hundred and fifty thousand of his subjects are those whom in his speech he refers to when he says, Germany "will know how to ride down everybody and everything which stands in her way." It is notable that in the official version these words have been carefully omitted, but the fact that they were spoken has provided fuel for resentment, and a text for the press comments.

Russian Douma Elections

The douma elections are still largely an undetermined issue, but in such provinces as have held them, the issue seems somewhat evenly divided. Notable defeats, however, appear in the failure of Count Heyden, leader of the party of Peaceful Regenerationists, and Professor Maxime Kovalevsky, leader of the Democratic Reform party, who was prominent in the last douma, to secure reëlection. Another of the active men, M. Annikin, leader of the Group of Toil, who was elected in the first stage of the balloting in Saratov province, has been disqualified by administrative order. In the provincial electoral college of Astrakhan, the Constitutional Democrats and the Radicals have a clear majority. In Yekaterinoslav the opposition is likewise in the ascendency, but in the provinces of Orel and Kaluga, the Conservatives are in the majority. In the primary Polish elections the Nationalists have the advantage over the Socialists. The former have as their aim in the douma the securing of autonomy for Poland. The final elections are to be held February 19. It is noteworthy that modern methods of voting are to be used, such as closed booths and official ballots. Electioneering in the vicinity of the polls is prohibited. Discrimination, however, prevails, for only the legalized



THE FUNERAL OF BARONESS BURDETT-COUTTS
She was one of the greatest benefactors of the London poor. Her death caused universal sorrow

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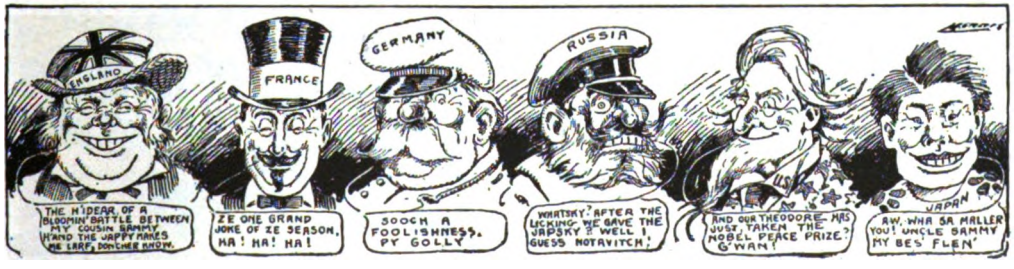
MRS. B. BORRMANN WELLS
British advocate of Woman Suffrage

MRS. JAMES BRYCE
Wife of the new British Ambassador to the United States

political parties, the Octoberists, Monarchists and Peaceful Regenerationists, may distribute ballots freely. The Constitutional Democrats or Cadets and other opposition parties can not do this, nor may they use printed ballots. Still later reports state that in several other provinces the supporters of the government have been beaten at the polls and that the opposition is in the lead. The exact situation, however, is not yet clear.

Political Changes in Spain

The Clerical party is again in the ascendency in Spain, for a Conservative ministry under Señor Maura, whom the Pope commends, was formed in the last days of January. The cabinet under Marquis de Armijo went out of office January 25 in consequence of dissension and personal animosity between the Liberal leaders: Moret, Montero Rios and Canelejas. The Cortes has been sus-



AN INTERVIEW WITH THE NATIONS
Will there be war between the United States and Japan?
Morris, in the Spokane *Spokesman-Review*

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pended by King Alfonso, and it is probable that new elections will shortly be in order. The ministerial change, of course, implies that no further progress will be made with the law of associations and other restrictive enactments relating to the power of the Church in Spain. But past history indicates that another turn of the wheel will perforce occur before many months have elapsed. The contagion of events in the neighboring countries can not long be warded off.

The Nation

Trials of the President

The investigation of the Brownsville affair is still on. It looks as if it might be on indefinitely. We have two sets of testimony: The one would lead us to believe that several enterprising citizens of Brownsville masqueraded as negro soldiers and shot up the town to make trouble for the negro troops. The other testimony would have us believe that the negro troops shot up the town. President Roosevelt believes the latter. Senator Foraker believes the former. The President has, however, come to see that he has overstepped his constitutional authority in debarring them from all civil employment under the government, and has revoked the clause inflicting such a punishment. While this investigation was going on, a delegation of Californians and San Franciscans has visited Washington for the purpose of reaching some sort of agreement with the President relative to the Japanese. The matter is being treated very seriously by the federal authorities. At the time of writing it is not possible to state just what policy will be pursued by the Californian delegation with Mayor Schmitz at its head at Washington, but we do not expect to be obliged to fight Japan nor do we believe that Japan wants to fight us. The matter is now being carried to court in a test case of a little Japanese boy who has been chosen for the purpose, and it is altogether probable that, when the exact status of the Japanese has been established under the California law forbidding Mongolians in the schools, the end of the incident will be in sight. But neither California nor the nation at large will be content until some rational method is found of regulating Japanese immigration. If the treaty now under consideration does this, California will doubtless be content. Otherwise it will probably share the fate of the treaty with San Domingo.

The Senate and Senators

The Senate is in a fair way to be reconstituted by the election of a large number of new members. Among the most picturesque of these figures is that of Senator Curtis from Kansas, a sketch of whom appears on another page. From another point of view quite as remarkable is the new senator from Colorado, Simon Guggenheim. As nearly as can be discovered, Mr. Guggenheim, who is a man of enormous wealth, went about the purchasing of his election with a rather cynical frankness. Not that he bought the legislature; he simply furnished the funds to various Republican committees and thus assured the election of men who were certain to elect him when they became members of the legislature. His program has attracted no very great attention, however, and why should it? It is simply carrying out logically a practice which is followed by

THE CONGRESSMAN RAISES HIS SALARY
What he thought would happen at home and what did happen
Webster, in the Chicago *Inter Ocean*

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JAPANESE SCHOOL CHILDREN EXCLUDED FROM THE SAN FRANCISCO SCHOOLS
However many adults may also have been excluded, these boys and girls are certainly of school age

every candidate, of assisting those who will assist him. Some men do it by the promise of patronage, some do it by money; but the successful candidate who does not in some way owe his election to assistance given to somebody else is rare indeed. The next step in reform must be discriminating legislation regarding campaign expenses. And this reminds one that Congress has at last dared to take the very proper step of raising the salaries of Representatives to $7,500. They should have been raised years ago.

The Panama Canal and Its Officials

The Panama Canal seems to be cursed with an inability to find a persistent creator. Just where the trouble is, it is hard to say, though not so difficult to conjecture. Mr. Wallace, a man in every way capable to carry on the work, found it advisable to resign and enter the service of a great corporation. Now during the past month Mr. Shonts has also resigned to take charge of Mr. Ryan's system of surface, elevated and underground railways in New York. Mr. Stevens, the engineer in chief, is still left, although if gossip were believed he, too, threatened to resign if the work is to be done by con-

ANOTHER ONE QUITS UNCLE SAM
Bartholomew, in the Minneapolis *Journal*

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tract. Altogether it is rather disconcerting. As we have said a good many times, the American people want to see the canal dug. It is not particularly concerned as to whether it is dug by contract or by the government. On the whole it is rather inclined to believe that it can be dug more cheaply and effectively in the former way. But we should all of us like to see some continuity in administration. There is tremendous honor for the man who brings the great task to completion. It is to be hoped that Mr. Stevens possesses sufficient fixity of purpose to win that honor. He certainly has shown himself capable thus far.

Floods on the Ohio and Mississippi

The floods along the Ohio and Mississippi have been almost unprecedented. It is estimated that the property loss at Cincinnati alone will amount to $2,000,000. At that city the flood reached a maximum stage of 65.2 feet and flooded the water front for miles. For several days little or no traffic was able to enter the city and thousands of people were forced to find refuge in school buildings and churches of the east end. The intense cold added to the suffering of the river residents. Not since 1884 has the city been so disastrously flooded. Then it reached a stage of 71 feet ¾ inch. At Louisville something like 240 blocks were submerged and the water registered over forty feet. Trains were forced in many cases to suspend traffic or run over tracks covered with water. At Memphis the Mississippi levee partly gave way, and a large portion of the business section of the city was threatened with inundation. The St. Francis Basin of Arkansas, the levee system of which is described on another page, was also threatened, but no serious damage was done. The importance of the Mississippi levee system becomes more evident every year, and it is to be hoped that the appropriations for making it even more effective will be increased. It is a matter that concerns the entire nation.

ONE RESULT OF THE FLOOD AT WEST TERRE HAUTE, IND.
A 100-barrel cistern was forced out of the ground by the sudden rise of the water from the Wabash River

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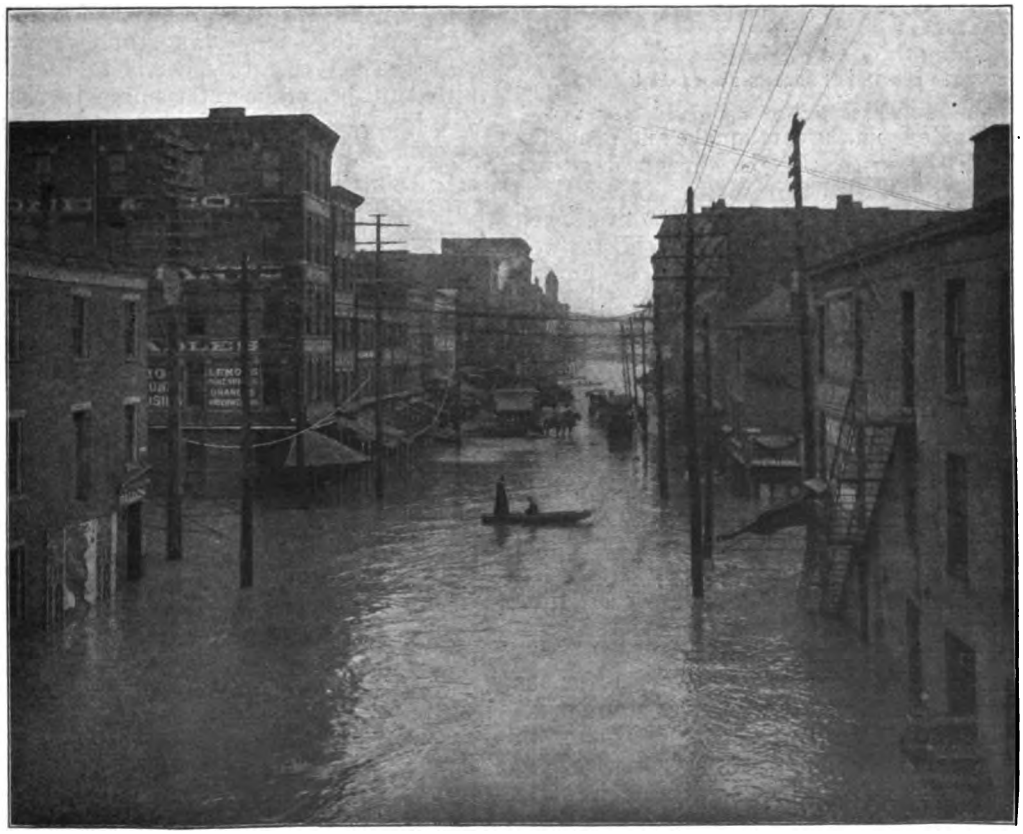
Curtis Public Landing as seen from the Covington pier of the Suspension Bridge. The water extends back 2½ squares



THE FLOOD IN CINCINNATI

Looking down Front St. from the foot of Vine St. Wholesale merchants lost much merchandise here. The first time this section has been flooded since 1884 when a stage of 71 feet was reached. This shows a stage of 64 feet

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SIMON GUGGENHEIM
The new United States Senator from Colorado

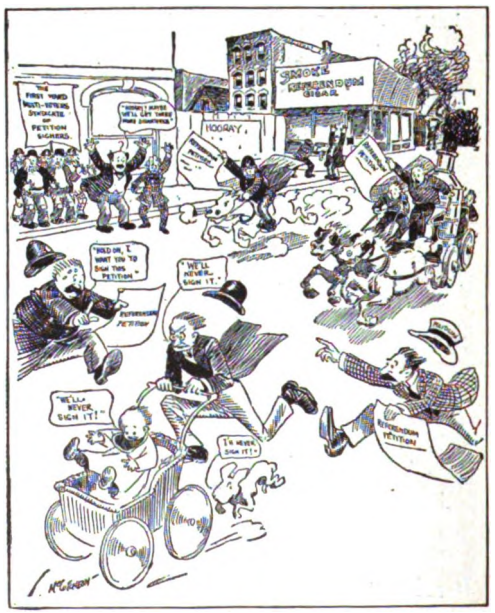
A Month of Horrors

Aside from the earthquake and flood disasters of the month, there has been an unusual number of casualties even for these days, when we are growing all too well accustomed to reckless losses of human life. On one day alone there were reported eight railroad disasters, and this was not simply a coincidence of date, with a freedom from similar occurrences in succeeding days to balance the account. There were as many more during the rest of the week. On the Big Four railway near Sandford, Indiana, an explosion in a car of dynamite wrecked an accommodation train that was passing and caused the loss of thirty-five or more lives. In another wreck on the same road over twenty were killed and more injured. An open switch on the Lake Shore road caused still another disaster. Various causes occasioned the numerous other accidents. High winds brought distress on the Great Lakes, many vessels coming to grief and $2,000,000 worth of property at Buffalo and vicinity being lost. There have also been several dreadful mine explosions by which a large number of men have met death. And most dreadful of all, 138 persons perished when the steamer Larchmont sank February 12, after colliding with a schooner near Block Island, Rhode Island.

Chicago's Traction Problem Again

The Chicago Traction question is in a fair way to be settled. But the city is not to have immediate municipal ownership. Mayor Dunne's election was interpreted by him and by the country at large to argue that Chicago was to have municipalization of its surface roads. But both he and the ownership enthusiasts reckoned without the city council. It, too, had been dealing with the traction problem and had come to rather distinct opinions. In a way its action on February 5 was along the line of a compromise between municipal and private ownerships. After lengthy negotiations with the city, the two larger companies, the Chicago City and Union Traction, agreed upon a valuation of $50,000,000 for their plants as they now stand, and on this basis the agreement which is to be submitted to the public referendum in April was based. The chief elements in the agreement are as follows:

1. The city is to have municipal ownership at any time on six months'



MAYOR DUNNE'S REFERENDUM PETITION
McCutcheon in the Chicago *Tribune*

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notice by paying the companies $50,000,000 and the value of such improvements as may be made in the future.

2. The companies agree to put on a large number of new cars and to make extensive improvements estimated to cost $40,000,000, these to be made under the directions of a commission to be composed of B. J. Arnold and two other experts, one to be appointed by the city and one by the companies.

3. The city is to be paid fifty-five per cent of the net earnings of the two companies after the payment of a five per cent dividend on the companies' valuation.

4. The entire agreement must be ratified by referendum by the people at the election in April.

BION J. ARNOLD

Who has been chosen as one of the three experts to adjust the relations of the city of Chicago and the Traction Company in case the people vote in favor of the proposed settlement of the traction question

A Wise Compromise

It will appear therefore that the possibility of municipal ownership has been recognized, but that the whole matter is really left in a way which is likely to guarantee the city proper traction facilities. Mayor Dunne was beaten at almost every turn in his rather vacillating attempt to follow his general program. In the midst of the contest between the council and the mayor, the mayor went to the people with what is known as the three-headed petition for a referendum. One of the petitions of this referendum involved the liquor traffic, and was clearly introduced as a means of obtaining for the traction referendum the signatures of those persons who cared little about the traction but who did care for an "open" Sunday. The device was certainly unworthy of the cause and doubtless will prove poor politics. If the ordinance is accepted by the popular vote, Chicago will be assured respectable transportation facilities.

The Drama, Music and Education

The End of Chicago's New Theater

It is with sincere regret that we record the close of Chicago's subsidized playhouse, The New Theater. Earnest, conscientious effort seems to have been made by the promoters of this enterprise to establish a theater devoted to the best in dramatic art. The company of players chosen was inefficient, however, and crude, amateurish performances were the rule. The choice of plays, too, was often ill-advised. In consequence the public failed to respond. The season came to an end with an unexpected interest in the revival of Herne's well advertised "Margaret Fleming," discovered to be brutally realistic, and in a measure offensive to good taste. The objections brought against it fifteen years ago still obtain. Fifteen years of realistic influence could scarcely have crushed out the last remnant of delicacy and refinement in the general public. The play is uncompromisingly vulgar. On the whole it is a question whether the American public cares for realistic drama of purpose. It is hoped that the approaching inception of a second subsidized theater, organized by the Chicago Woman's Club, under the direction of Donald Robertson, will lead

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to permanency. It is at least likely to be more democratic. The western metropolis is willing to support art. It will not, however, support an "up-lift" movement that resorts to "problems" or inferiorities.

Sudermann's "John the Baptist"

The metropolitan presentation of Sudermann's "John the Baptist," by E. H. Sothern and Julia Marlowe, proved a fiasco. Though the play created so much of a sensation in Germany that it was barred from public presentation, its effect on New York audiences was soporific. Critics united in declaring it a play of little value, one characterized by a succession of dull and uninspiring scenes. It lacks spontaneity and action, and has been likened by virtue of its scenic completeness to a moving-picture machine. Miss Marlowe found in Salome a rôle wholly inadequate to her talents. The dance of The Seven Veils, widely heralded to pique the curiosity of the idle, proved to be a terpsichorean scene, played by the actress with skill and modesty. The scene was harmless enough to pass wholly uncensored. It is certain that the play, because of its dramatic ineffectiveness, will be dropped from the repertoire of these two ambitious and sincere artists.

MISS GRACE GEORGE
As "Olivia Sherwood" in the comedy of "Clothes"

Salomy Jane

If the biblical Salome proved uninteresting in a modern drama, the "Salomy Jane" of Bret Harte, made the central figure of a rousing American melodrama by Paul Armstrong, has won all but unstinted praise. Though the theatrical wiseacres had announced that the fad for western plays had run its course, this Bret Harte idyl sprang into immediate favor. Eleanor Robson has created in primitive "Salomy Jane" the best-rounded characterization of her career as a star. The month likewise saw the first performance of another new melodrama by Victor Mapes called "The Undercurrent" and presented by Lena Ashwell. It proved to be a mediocre play, dealing again with western types but in a drawing-room setting. Its failure to interest the public, and the lack of other adequate material in the star's repertoire, together with ill health, has compelled her to terminate her American tour.

Comedy and Comedians

Comedy has served in the past month to reveal unexpected histrionic talent in a comic-opera singer, and to bring back to our stage not only an expatriated American woman, Fanny Ward, but also the inimitable Ellen Terry. In "The Aero Club" by Sydney Rosenfeld, Lulu Glaser, formerly a hoydenish cantatrice of low comedy methods, has suddenly developed into a comedienne with the same erstwhile exuberant spirits, but toned down with a measure of restraint to fit the social atmosphere of her new realm. The result is still amusing. She is called a "Francis Wilson in petticoats." An excellent play called "A Marriage of Reason" has been the vehicle for the appearance of Fanny Ward, after a long period of retirement in England. Its theme is international marriage, and the author, J. Hartley Manners, has built a play with admirable human insight. Miss Ward is a beautiful and talented Ameri-

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can, the wife of a British millionaire, and she is attempting with considerable success to demonstrate artistically the fact that Anglo-American alliances can be really happy ones. The play is full of vivid types and has afforded Kyrle Bellew an aristocratic rôle. The return to America of Ellen Terry in G. Bernard Shaw's "Captain Brassbound's Conversion" has created a flutter of interest among the English woman's endless American following. There are moments of delicious wit in the comedy, and Miss Terry is well fitted with a rôle especially written for her. It scarcely matters, however, what the nature of the play is with which this well-beloved comedienne chooses to reveal her art.

Mme. Nazimova

The tour of the Russian players in America last season, though financially disastrous for the company itself, brought a permanent acquisition to the English-speaking stage in the person of Mme. Alla Nazimova, an artiste of unquestioned genius. Her elevation to the position of a star, playing Ibsen rôles in English, has met with the success, both financial and artistic, denied her while her medium remained the Russian tongue. This is a matter for congratulation. With but seven years' experience, the young artiste exhibits a marvelous technique, as well as great sincerity, intellect and soul. It is little wonder that her matinées have become a fad with the intelligent and the discriminating.

The Boston Symphony Orchestra

Real music of that elevating kind which lifts the spirit is heard in many great concert halls as the Boston Symphony Orchestra under Dr. Karl Muck's leadership makes its way on a tour of the country. The new director is a man of striking personality, revealing quiet magnetic mastery both of men and music. As a conductor he has a fund of resource which keeps his ninety-six instrumentalists ever within his authoritative influence. It is a tribute to its musical taste as well as its loyalty that his splendid leadership has not weakened the hold of Mr. Stock and the Theodore Thomas Orchestra upon the Chicago public.

MADAME ALLA NAZIMOVA,
Who is now personating Ibsen rôles in English

New York and "Salome."

The musical world has been given a startling sensation in the premier performance of the Wilde-Strauss opera of "Salome." While musically remarkable, created by mad genius in the height of power, sung by the Conried Metropolitan Opera Company with consummate skill, and proclaimed the most important production since Wag-

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DR. CARL MUCK
Conductor of the Boston Symphony Orchestra

ner, nevertheless its abrupt discontinuance as a menace to the morals of the public has met with an answering note of gratitude and relief by most right-minded people. There is no place in the great artistic world, even with the seductive influence of powerful music, for downright bestiality. Impresario Conried threatens to test the mental caliber of western audiences with this same "Salome." We hope he will be taught the same lesson given him by the directors of the Manhattan Opera House.

The General Education Board

The largest sum ever given by a single individual to the cause of education will result from the gift on February 7 of $32,000,000 by John D. Rockefeller to the General Education Board. In 1905 Mr. Rockefeller gave $10,000,000 to this board. The General Education Board was founded for the purpose of assisting the cause of general education throughout the United States. Under the administration of Dr. Wallace Buttrick it accomplishes its aim in a businesslike fashion, and the assistance which it has given to various institutions has been invariably well considered and wise. It favors no denomination or locality, but extends aid to colleges well managed and located throughout the entire country. Of this latest gift of Mr. Rockefeller, $10,000,000 goes to further endowment of the board, and $22,000,000 will be used as designated by the donor and his son, any remainder at their decease going into the endowment fund of the board.

Amateur Sport

New Turns of the Athletic Kaleidoscope

The kaleidoscope of athletic reform in the Middle West has been given another turn. The representatives of the "Big Nine" met in conference January 12 to decide as to whether or not the rules recently adopted should be regarded as retroactive upon students in residence when they were passed, and also as to whether they should apply to secondary sports. The conference voted by a large majority in favor of such applications. Chicago and Michigan found themselves thus bereft of some prominent point-getters. Chicago took the situation in the spirit which animated the conference itself. The alumni and student body of Michigan, however, mutinied and brought influence to bear upon the regents to compel them to compel the faculties to break all connections with the conference. According to the newspapers the majority of the regents favored such severance of relations, but very wisely referred the matter to the faculty. The faculty in its turn seemed to have judged a fabian policy advisable and at the time of writing the whole matter is undecided, both regents and faculty evidently hoping that in the course of time the students may be ready to second the really sincere efforts of the faculty to bring athletics into the proper perspective of university interests. In the meantime both Michigan and the other universities find themselves enmeshed in

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an all-but-never-ending discussion of the athletic situation. Nothing else could be needed to show how badly genuine reform was needed in the treatment of athletics. There is something pathetic as well as exasperating in the spectacle of university bodies diverted from their proper functions for the purpose of discussing the severance of athletic relations because the student body is so possessed of the professional spirit that it does not wish to see athletics placed upon a rational and gentlemanly basis.

A Proposed Gentleman's Agreement

Wholly independent of this question of the disruption of the "Big Nine" there has developed among the leading football universities of the Middle West a highly interesting proposal, namely: That Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin and Chicago in resuming football relations shall resume simultaneously, and arrange a cycle of games and provide that these games shall be conducted on the basis of a gentleman's agreement rather than of a business contract. The success of similar arrangements between Chicago and Minnesota as well as between Chicago and other universities during the past season, warrants the belief that in these proposals there lies a distinct hope for the clearing of the atmosphere of intercollegiate athletics. At the time of writing, this agreement has been approved by all the faculties concerned except that of Michigan. The proposal does not anticipate the dissolution of the Big Nine Conference, but is simply the outgrowth of an attempt to rehabilitate athletic relations between the four institutions. The same agreements would hold, if agreed upon, between these four institutions and other institutions represented in the conference.

HENRY CHURCHILL KING
Just elected President of the Religious Education Association

The Religious World

The Religious Education Association

The election of Henry Churchill King, president of Oberlin University, to the presidency of the Religious Education Association was a merited honor. Doctor King has been for the past year chairman of the executive board of the association and is thoroughly in touch with that growing organization. The convention of the association held at Rochester, February 5-7, was the third in the history of the organization and was altogether quite as important as the other two. The association stands for no particular theology, but does stand for a general determination to make education religious and to make religious effort more educational. It includes an exceptionally large number of the prominent educators of the country together with an even larger number of laymen and clergymen. Its influence over religious education is already marked, and its publication, *Religious Education*, founded during the past year, is becoming an organ of no mean significance. Having crossed the financial shoals of its early years, it is destined to be, and in fact has become, one of the great constructive forces of the religious world.

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A Great Missionary Conference

At the present time a large number of representative members of the laity and clergy are leaving for China. There is to be held at Shanghai, beginning April 25, a ten days' conference on missions in China which will be attended by one thousand missionaries and the representatives of various Christian bodies in America and Europe. It is likely to be of very widespread and lasting influence, for it is the outcome of the energy and ambition of the younger missionaries in China who have seen that the situation there is too critical to be met by traditional missionary methods. As never before, missionary enterprises require real statesmanship. Such problems as methods of evangelization, social and medical work, division of territory among denominations, the development of a Chinese Christianity which shall not be a duplication of that of America, and as soon as possible independent of missionary control, the relation of missions to Chinese politics, the type of missionaries demanded, all are matters which are vital to the future of a rapidly growing New China. The day is happily passing when any intelligent person can think of missions as mere proselyting effort seeking to superimpose a western religion upon an eastern people. This great conference ought to be a large agency in awakening the western world to its tremendous responsibility to four hundred million people who are bound to affect, if not actually be controlled by, the social ideals of Europe and America.

World's Student Convention

The World's Student Convention, under the auspices of the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian associations, will be held at Tokyo April 3. It will be attended by hundreds of delegates from all over the world. The fact that it should be held in Japan is itself significant of the progress which Christianity has made in that empire. It also indicates the statesmanlike policy of the world's student committee. Japan even more than China can not be expected to remain indefinitely loyal to its ancient religions. Its educated classes are already as modern as those of Europe and America. Christianity means to the Japanese something more than a taking over bodily of a western theology, and it is to be hoped that this great conference will serve to enforce upon the students of Japanese universities the social as well as the individual significance of Christian thought and doctrine. It is also to be hoped that it will bring home to the leaders of the association movement, the world over, the fact already appreciated by some of them, that unless Christian truth can be rethought and restated in terms of the great intellectual movements of to-day, it is likely to lose the support of the professional and university-trained classes.

Church and State in France

The progress of separation of Church and State in France is not peaceful. There has been organized in Paris a schismatic church at the head of which is Archbishop Vilatte, formerly of Texas. Considerable disorder attended his celebration of the mass in Paris, February 3. It is not probable that the movement will amount to anything important. Far more significant is the effort of M. Briand, who, it is reported, has fallen out with M. Clemenceau, to bring about a solution of the actual situation. M. Briand construes recent legislation liberally and, February 3, sent word through the prefects to the mayors of the various towns of a *modus vivendi*. The municipal councils should grant leases of churches rent free to common law associations or clergymen, the duration of the contract not to exceed eighteen years without the approval of the prefect. According to this plan it would be easy for the clergy to take advantage of the new law and yet really preserve most of their older privileges. On February 6 a model contract was drawn up by M. Briand, and it is probable that if the clergy should accept it the Church would be granted the permanent and gratuitous enjoyment of property it has held under the concordat. It is to be borne in mind, however, that the real point at issue is not so much the question of property as of the relation of the French republic with the Vatican. And this is in no wise affected by the proposals of M. Briand. It is not surprising, therefore, that at the time of writing, negotiations are still incomplete.

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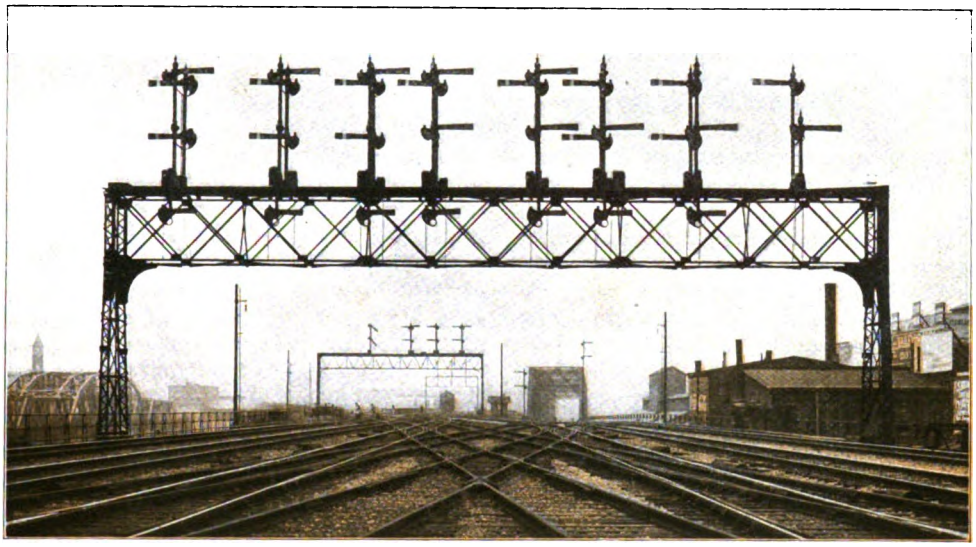

Automatic block system controlling approach of trains to depot

THE BLOCK SYSTEM AND RAILWAY ACCIDENTS

BY

DAY ALLEN WILLEY

THE train had reached the top of a heavy grade when the engineer discovered that something was wrong with one of the valves, and he must stop. He applied the air brakes and as the cars ceased moving, a trainman ran back to set the red flag and thus warn the engineer of any train following. The flagman had gone but a short distance when on came another train. It crashed into the one ahead, the locomotive crunching the rear car into a shapeless mass of wood and iron. From under it were taken the bodies of the president of the railroad and two of his friends."

Thus read a recent dispatch published throughout the country. It is only one of many such accounts which make up the news of the day in the United States. Railroad accidents are such common happenings that only when one occurs in which the death roll is larger than usual, or persons of note are the victims, do we give it more than a passing thought. Perhaps the American people have become fatalists in this respect and take it for granted that such disasters must be expected as a matter of course.

But why should they occur? Is it necessary for ten thousand lives to be sacrificed and one hundred and forty thousand people to be injured—the record for a single year—in the operation of railroads in the United States?

Compare this appalling loss of life with that in other countries, Great Britain for example. It is so much greater that there is evidently something wrong, decidedly wrong, in connection with our railroad service. Again quoting figures, during a recent year when 321 passengers were killed and seven thousand injured in this country, but 25 were killed and 769 injured in Great Britain, although it is a fact that five hundred million more pas-

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senger tickets are annually sold by British railway companies than by those in the United States.

The main reason for the remarkably few accidents abroad is because nearly every country compels train service to be controlled by some system of signals which prevents one train from approaching nearer than a certain distance to another, the track being divided into sections or "blocks" which but one train may occupy. Every mile of railroad in Great Britain forms part of a block at each end of which is placed a signal which shows the engineer whether it is clear or occupied by a train. Consequently a collision can only occur by his neglect or disregard of the signal's warning, which is a criminal offense under the English law. In the United States we have several methods of block signals which are as efficient as those abroad, but the law does not compel railroad companies to place them on their lines, and there is no law except the company's order to prevent an engineer from running his train into an occupied block. Such is one cause why collisions have occurred on lines provided with block signals—but through no fault of the signal.

To the ordinary passenger, the modern railroad signal is indeed a puzzle. As the train rushes along, he notices posts standing at the side of the roadway, with discs or slats projecting from them. Sometimes the slats are directly at right angles with the posts; sometimes they hang obliquely downward. If he is a close observer, he may notice that some of the slats have notched edges, while others are cut off squarely at the ends. If he makes an inquiry of the trainman, he is told that the slats are semaphores; but this explanation does not explain.

To the engineer, however, the signals are as plain as the print on the page of an open book. As he passes each at a rate of forty or fifty miles an hour, merely a glance from the cab window tells him what to do with his lever—to stop, run slowly or continue at full speed. It is not necessary for the telegraph wires stretched from end to end of the system to transmit a single message to any of the operatives regarding train movements, if the block system is installed; for

SIGNAL ARCH ON FOUR-TRACK ROUTE

The semaphores hanging at an angle nearly vertical show that the right-hand tracks are clear for two blocks. The first block on the two left-hand tracks is clear, but the second block ahead has a train upon it, as indicated by the semaphores set horizontally

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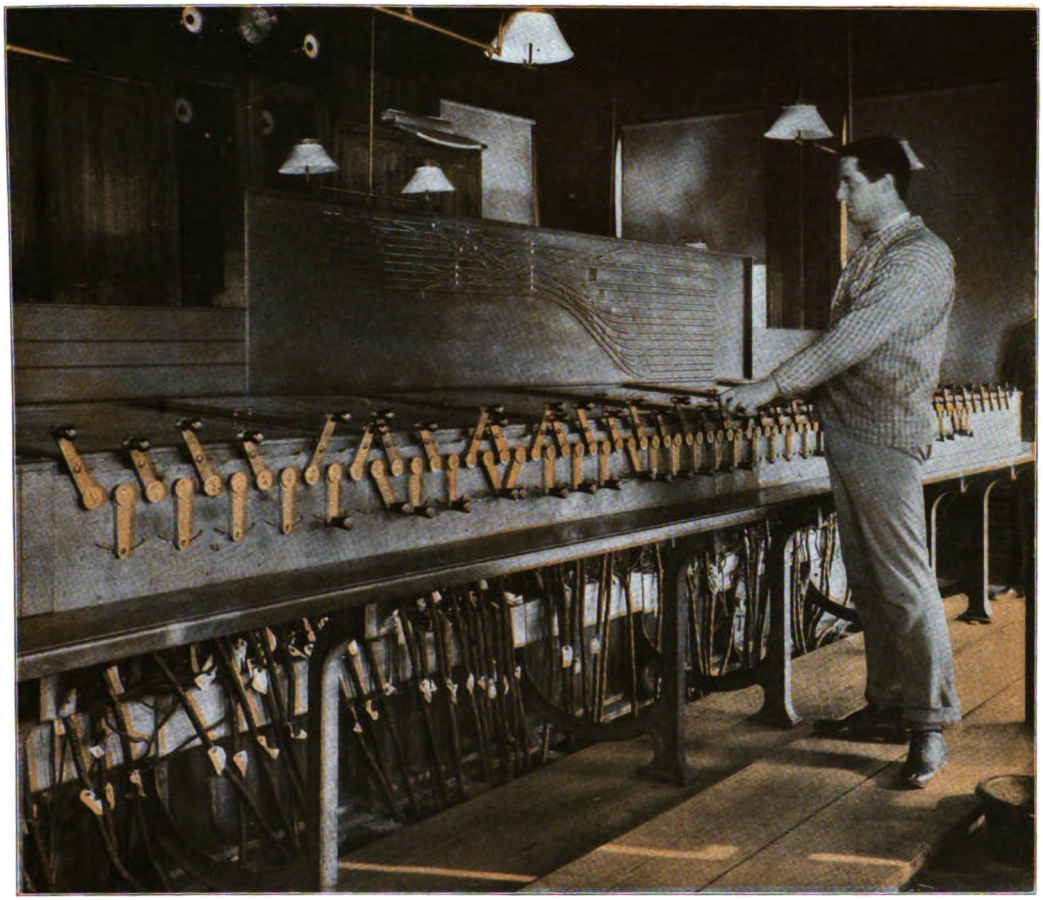

AN OPERATOR IN AN ELECTRO-PNEUMATIC BLOCK-SIGNAL TOWER

A model of the tracks in the railroad yard is placed above the lever board and so connected with it that the signal on the model moves simultaneously with the signal connected with the lever, thus showing that the latter has been set correctly

no matter if a hundred trains daily are passing over the road, if the men obey the silent orders that are given by the semaphore or lantern signal, collisions are almost impossible and danger is reduced to a minimum.

The length of a block naturally depends upon the traffic passing over a railroad, and may range from less than a mile to five or six miles. Each block is separated from those adjacent to it by imaginary lines, although apparatus has been devised whereby the ends of a block can be actually disconnected from the other rails, making a switch, so that it is physically impossible for a train to enter upon the block when it is occupied by another. The movements of the trains are, of course, controlled entirely by the signals placed at the approach to each block terminus and at the terminus.

Whether these signals are operated by means of the hand lever, the electric key or the movement of the train, the same general method of procedure is followed. One system is operated entirely by the passage of the trains over the rails, and is called the automatic block, because no human operators are needed to work it. The ends of each block are insulated by means of some non-conducting metal. At the farther end of each block is placed what is called a "track battery," from which electric current is furnished, which is carried by wiring to the signals, setting them at safety, caution or danger, as the case requires. The movement of the current is governed merely by the contact of

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the forward or rear wheels of the train with the rail connection.

An electro-pneumatic system — controlled by hand, however—has been extensively introduced by companies who have substituted signals for the train dispatcher. In this method the signals are set by operators in what are termed the "signal towers," located near the terminus of each block, at the entrance to railway yards and at other points where sidings and crossings require special means of supervision. The signal tower contains a switchboard, which is connected by wires with all the signals it serves. By means of the electric button or lever the electric circuit is made or broken, and through the wires, opens or closes the air valves which control the movement of the signals. Thus it is necessary only to move the lever or touch the button connected with a signal to place it instantly at caution or danger, whether a few hundred feet or a mile distant.

This method might be termed practically automatic, since really no manual labor is required and one operator may control the traffic on a score of tracks. In fact, only a half dozen men are needed to direct safely the train movements at the entrances to some of the stations in the great cities of the country, sometimes "handling" one hundred and fifty trains in ten hours, day after day, without the slightest accident.

As the name implies, the Union electro-pneumatic system depends upon compressed air and electric current for its successful operation. To give a detailed explanation of the apparatus would require more space than can be devoted to this article, since there are so many varieties of it. The usual method of moving the semaphores is by means of pistons actuated by a flow of compressed air. This flow is of course governed entirely by the valves, which in turn are controlled by the electric circuits referred to. In employing this plan the supply of air required is conducted through pipes from air compressors located at convenient points. Compressed air also moves the signals which are worked by the passage of the trains.

Another method of moving the signals is by means of hand levers, which are attached to wires directly fastened to the signals. This is termed the "manual lever" system, and is also extensively utilized in block signaling in the United States. From the tower wires extend to each of the semaphores it controls. They are usually laid in conduits to protect them from the weather and from accidental breakage. At each curve the wires pass over pulleys in order to reduce the friction. In the signal station the wires lead up to levers arranged in a series. By pulling or pushing a lever handle the semaphore connected with it is raised or lowered. Signals at a distance of fifteen hundred feet from the lever can be manipulated in this way, although at such distance considerable strength is required because of the weight of the wire and other resistance which must be overcome.

Usually a miniature model of the tracks is placed above the lever board. On this model is indicated every post operated from the station. It is connected with the lever system in such a way that when a certain handle is pulled the signal on the model corresponding to the signal connected with the lever moves at the same time. This shows the operator that the signal has been set correctly and that the line is not broken or otherwise affected. The electro-pneumatic switchboard, where the signals are moved by key or button, has a model of the same kind serving to check the work of the operator.

As we have intimated, the British railroad law is so rigid that when the engineer sees the semaphore arm set at danger, or the red lantern at night, he must come to a full stop on the edge of a block, or suffer the penalty. In this country, where every consideration is sacrificed to time-saving, the signals on the systems divided into blocks may be placed but a half mile apart on a section of the line where traffic is heavy. In this way more trains can be moved over the section at a time, but it is necessary for the engineer to know whether the track is clear or occupied beyond the next block, since it is so short. The signal post or arch therefore contains at least two, sometimes three and four arms. They are of course in such a position that no object shuts them out from his vision as he glances ahead from the cab window. Usually the semaphore at the top controls the first block, the center arm the second, the third the next block.

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A BLOCK SIGNAL SET AT SAFETY
The train can therefore enter upon the next block

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ENGINEER RECEIVING THE TRAIN STAFF GIVING HIM RIGHT OF ENTRY ON NEXT BLOCK

The staff is held loosely on the rim of a hoop so that it can be caught easily while train is running at forty miles an hour

If he sees the upper arm hanging at an angle nearly vertical he knows that he has the right of way in that block. The second is also at an angle, so he can maintain his speed, for he has at least two blocks "leeway" as the sailor would say, but on passing into the block ahead he sees the center arm on the next signal post standing in a horizontal direction. This means "slow up" so that he can come to a full stop in the succeeding block until the falling of the semaphore tells him that he can again get under way.

So he goes, mile after mile, now running at full speed, then dragging along toward the arm set at danger. More and more slowly move the wheels until down goes the signal and the speed is increased. He does not know how many trains may be in front or behind; there is no one to wave a red or white flag. Perhaps he does not receive a message by telephone or telegraph during the hundred miles or more of the division. The semaphores are his only guides. From them he gets his orders. Sometimes but one is used for three blocks, when they are called three-position signals. Standing horizontally at a right angle with the post means a train in the next block ahead. Standing obliquely means the next block is clear, but the one in front of it is occupied. Hanging directly downward means two blocks clear.

Not merely the speed of the train, but the grade of the road and the weather conditions are important factors in train service on a railroad where the blocks are a mile or less in length. It must be

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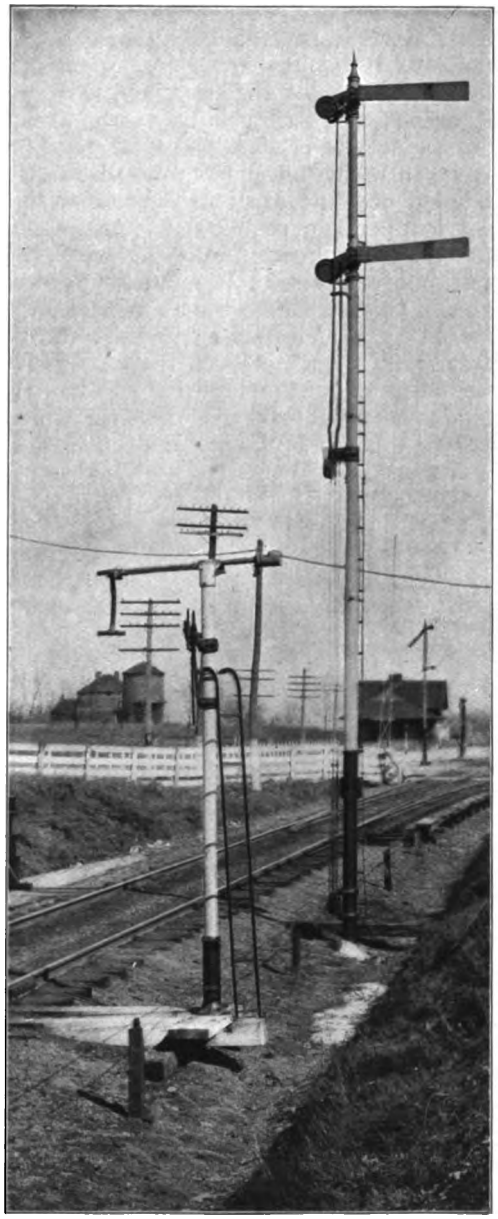
remembered that freight trains these days may be nearly a mile long if made up of empty cars, and that the short block requires great caution in running passenger trains. An express train running on a level plane or down grade may attain a speed of from sixty to eighty miles an hour in order to maintain its schedule of forty-five or fifty miles an hour, the engineer taking advantage of the alignment of the road. It has been demonstrated beyond question that on a level track with dry rails, it is impossible to stop a train running at the rate of sixty miles an hour within twelve hundred feet. Even then the full force of the air brakes must be applied at once and the engineer must take the chances of seriously injuring the passengers by the shock. Where the brakes are applied gradually at least two thousand feet will be covered before the train reaches a full stop. If running at a ninety-mile rate, three thousand feet, or over a half mile, is required to bring it to a halt under the same conditions. On a down grade, or when the rails are wet and slippery, it is obviously impossible to check the momentum within these distances, and unless sufficient space intervenes between the two trains a collision is inevitable, even with a block system in use.

About ten years ago a company built a street railroad in a town in eastern Canada. On the route was a bridge several hundred feet long which was crossed by a single track. At each end of the bridge was placed a man who did nothing but handle a wooden stick about a foot in length. When a car approached the bridge, before it was allowed to pass over, the watchman at its end would look along the structure. If the track was clear he gave the motorman the stick. Then the car crossed to the other end, where the stick was delivered to the second watchman. No other car could cross either way until he had returned it to the first man. Crude and clumsy as it was, this was the first application of the train staff system in America, and the same principle is carried out to-day, although by means of modern mechanism which makes it effectual as a safeguard, yet suited to frequent train service.

It is the most effective system yet devised for preventing collisions, for if strictly observed, such an accident is made impossible. There are two methods of using the train staff, in one of which machinery practically performs all of the operations. The railroad is divided into blocks and at the end of each is a tower for the operator. The towers are all connected by electric circuits and beside the track near each is the "staff holder," as it



A MECHANICAL TRAIN STAFF HOLDER

The staff is in position to be taken by an automatic catcher

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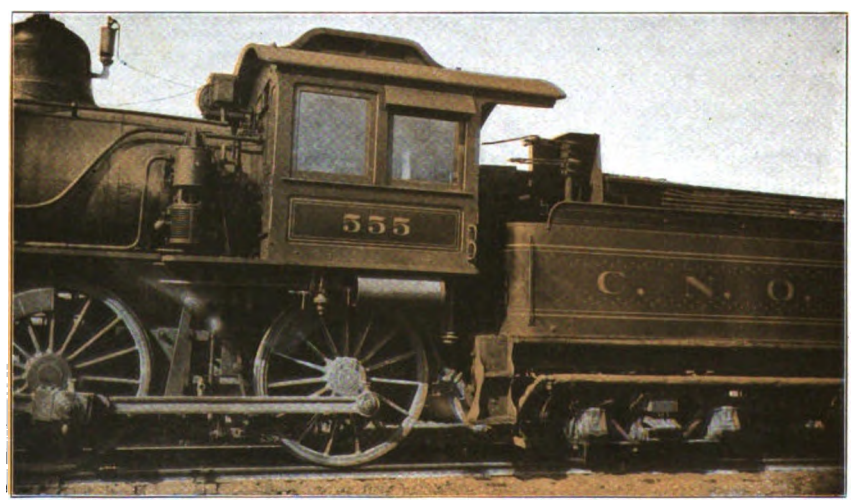
is called. This is a machine in which is set a metal rod about six inches long. The outer end of the rod projects several inches from the face of the machine. Each locomotive has an automatic gripper mounted on the cab, which the engineer can swing into position and take the train staff from a holder, even if he is running at a speed of forty miles an hour.

We will say that a train is about to enter a block protected by the staff system. If it is open, the engineer can tell by the position of the semaphore. Seeing it stands at "safety," he starts ahead, but before he reaches the staff machine the man in the tower has pressed an electric button that unfastens the staff so that the gripper can pull it out. As soon as the train has passed into the block, the semaphore is raised to the danger position and at the same time the staff machine is locked by the electric current, so that if an engineer did not heed the warning of the semaphore and tried to enter the block, he could not get this mechanical permission to do so. But a strange thing has happened. When the operator set the danger signal and locked the staff machine, he cut himself off from controlling it as well. He can not alter either the signal or machine until the train has passed out of the block. Then the man in the signal tower ahead opens and closes an electric circuit that releases the first machine and sets the signal arm at safety. By this plan the tower man in one block partly controls the mechanism at the next tower, and can tell if his fellow has done his work properly; in short, one man "keeps tab" on the other.

The "hand staff" method is used on one or two American railroads. As the name signifies, part of the operation is performed by hand. Instead of the train staff machine, the staff is delivered to the locomotive by a man who takes his position at the end of the block. The staff is held loosely on the rim of a hoop. The staff is caught from the hoop as the locomotive passes in a manner somewhat similar to the way in which the mail bag is picked up at a station as the train rushes past without slackening speed. But whether the staff is delivered by human or mechanical means, it forms a visible proof that the engineer has the right to enter a block. On the other hand, if he has none, he is clearly guilty of disobeying orders.

The traveler in the eastern part of the United States is quite familiar with the block signal, although its method of operation may be a mystery to him. Most of the systems placed in operation in this country are on our highways of steel that have been laid east of the Mississippi River. Yet only a very small proportion of American railways have been provided with either the automatic or manual block signals, while only three companies



A LOCOMOTIVE EQUIPPED WITH TRAIN STAFF CATCHER
This machine receives the visible, mechanical permission for an engineer to enter a block

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are utilizing the train staff which is so extensively employed in Great Britain. At the present time about two hundred and forty thousand miles of track are in use in the United States, not including sidings and yards. Of this mileage less than forty-five thousand miles, or about eighteen per cent, are protected by any type of block or train staff for train control.

THE TRIUMPH OF THE KAISER

WHAT THE GERMAN ELECTIONS MEANT TO THE GERMAN EMPIRE AND TO INTERNATIONAL POLITICS

BY

FREDERIC AUSTIN OGG

AS I write the German people are emerging from a six-weeks' political campaign which in many respects is unparalleled in the history of the empire. For one thing, the issues involved have perhaps never been so vital. In the second place, it is the universal verdict of observers that not within the last two decades at least has an election been so hotly contested or attracted to the polls so large a proportion of the stay-at-homes. And, finally, the counting of the votes has brought to light results which have surprised the Wilhelmstrasse, distressed the forces of opposition, and put the whole tribe of election prophets, in Germany and out, to shame. In its remarkable triumph for the government against heavy odds and its thoroughgoing defeat of the hitherto ascendant Social Democracy, the election of 1907 is absolutely unique in German political history.

The Colonial Policy in the Reichstag

As is apt to be the case under a constitutional system more flexible in such matters than our own, the election came on quite unexpectedly. It was precipitated by a situation which developed at the assembling of the Reichstag the middle of last November, and almost before the nation was aware the orators were polishing their speeches, the pamphleteers scribbling their diatribes, and the leaders planning the lines of battle.

It so happened that the first request with which Prince von Bülow, the Imperial Chancellor, confronted the newly assembled Reichstag was for a grant of $7,000,000 to be used for the carrying on of the conflict with the rebellious Herreros in German Southwest Africa. During former sessions numerous appropriations for this purpose had been asked and granted without serious question and it does not appear that the government had any premonition of being denied now. None the less a storm of opposition was immediately raised.

The "little war," as the contest with the Herreros has come ironically to be called, was begun more than three years ago and has already cost the German people considerably over $170,000,000, not to mention the two thousand soldiers who have perished in it. There are now some twelve thousand German troops in the field and it was to avoid the necessity of cutting this number down to 2,500 that the government asked the seven millions. All this expenditure, past and prospective, was simply for the purpose of suppressing an insurrection among the scattered, semi-nomadic inhabitants of a vast, undeveloped, and unprofitable African dependency. The strain put by the seemingly endless outlay upon the average taxpayer's allegiance to the imperialistic régime was considerable.

It might have been borne, however,

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without protest but that the Chancellor's demand came in very inopportune sequence to a series of humiliating disclosures of inefficiency and corruption in the administration of the colonial empire in general. The expansion of Germany beyond seas, like that of most nations, has not been free from greed, cruelty, hypocrisy, and underhanded dealing. If German exploitation of outlying regions is no worse than Dutch or English or French, it is at least in most respects no better. During the past year, as everybody knows, there has been a great scandal in the colonial administration, as one result of which the Prussian Minister of Agriculture, Dr. von Podbielski, has been ejected from office on account of his connection with certain dishonest contracts made by government agents for army supplies to be used in the African possessions. Another result has been the reorganization of the Colonial Office itself and the creation of a new position, that of Director of the Colonial Bureau, whose first incumbent is the able and conscientious Jewish banker, Herr Bernhard Dernburg.

A moderately thorough house-cleaning in colonial affairs has thus been effected, but there yet remains a great deal to be done before the colonial service of the empire shall have been put upon the high plane occupied by other branches of the administrative organization. Among the people there continues to be a general lack of confidence in the whole colonial system. This was the situation when the government came forward with its demand in behalf of the Southwest African war: the colonial administration in discredit, the officials on the defensive and hard pressed, and the war itself all but an acknowledged failure. German legislators and taxpayers were in such a frame of mind that nothing could stir up a heated discussion more speedily than a proposal looking to the further expenditure of the national revenues upon projects connected with the tropical colonies. Their newly coined word, *Kolonialmüdigkeit*,—"that tired feeling"—had become much too mild to express their disgust, for the time being, with colonies and all that pertains to them.

After a fierce six days' debate the question came to a vote, with the result of 178 to 168 against making the appropriation. The German ministerial system is unlike the English and such an adverse vote does not necessarily involve either the retirement of the ministry or the dissolution of the legislature. But Chancellor von Bülow, with the approval of the Emperor, came to the speedy decision to throw down the gauntlet to the obstructive majority by dissolving the chamber and ordering new elections, the first since 1903. The step was taken on December 13, and the six-weeks' campaign forthwith began.

The Kaiser vs. Clericals and Socialists

Having served as the immediate occasion for the election of a new Reichstag, the question of the colonial war dropped into the background. Except for the Social Democrats, the German people are attracted by the Kaiser's dream of a colonial empire and are at heart thoroughgoing imperialists, if so be only that the colonies may be decently managed; and of even the Social Democrats there are few who go the whole distance with Herr Bebel and pronounce colonies sheer foibles and death-traps. Despite the discomfiture which has lately been aroused on the subject, it would never be possible to wage a campaign in Germany on an issue of colonies or no colonies. By two-thirds of the people the general desirability of colonies is taken for granted. Broadly speaking, the recent campaign assumed at once the character of a contest between the government and the two great parties which for the time represented the indubitably tremendous internal forces in opposition to the régime for which the present government stands.

Put more definitely, it was a fight on the one side by the government to build up for itself a new and more reliable working majority in the popular legislative chamber, and on the other side, by the opposition, to temper autocracy with a larger measure of popular control over the policies of state. The two parties whose coöperation defeated the Supplementary Colonial Estimates, and against whom the energies of the government were directed in the campaign, are the Clericals, or Centre, and the Social Democrats.

No error could be greater than to think

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of these as allies, or even as friends. Their incompatibility with each other is at all points complete. But it so happened that on the question of the African grant they were ranged on the same side and their respective leaders, Herr Rören and Herr Bebel, alternated on the floor of the Reichstag in ridiculing the projects and denouncing the requests of the government. With the Socialists it was a matter of opposing imperialism on general principles; with the Clericals, who normally are among the most ardent supporters of colonial expansion, it was a matter of pique pure and simple and of revenge upon the Colonial Director for the bitter attacks he had been making upon their attitudes and policies. As a consequence of the peculiar and wholly accidental affiliation, Social Democrats and Clericals fell alike under the ban of the government's disapproval.

The Position of the Clericals

The position of the Clericals in recent German politics has been peculiar and is in itself a sufficient explanation of why there has been an election this winter at all. Built up originally by the clergy to fight the battles of the Papacy against Bismarck, the party has remained formidable because of its absolute identification in the popular mind with the interests of the Catholic church and the consequent attachment to it of great masses of south Germans, and because it has always been far more successful than any of its rivals in maintaining compactness of organization. Its attitude toward the Emperor and his régime has generally been more or less defiant, and yet, curiously enough, nine times out of ten during the past few years the government has contrived to carry its measures solely by the hundred votes which the Clerical representatives possess in the Reichstag. It has done this by frankly acknowledging the pivotal position which the party occupies and sparing no pains to conciliate its leaders as well as its rank and file.

The situation, however, has not been in all respects agreeable. It has involved the granting of favors to Catholics which have been resented by the Protestant portions of the Empire and have operated to breed discontent and suspicion. Moreover, as long as a party which at heart is essentially hostile, or at the best indifferent, but which controls nearly a fourth of the votes in the Reichstag, can so arrogate to itself the balance of power that the government is compelled to come to it on its knees and beg support when important projects are to be carried through, the Kaiser and his ministers might naturally be expected to feel an uncomfortable sense of dependence. And in fact there has long been much chafing and much scheming to be rid of the arrangement.

At last the opportunity came. The Clerical leaders somewhat overshot the mark by their unusually pugnacious attitude on the Supplementary Estimates and, quick as a flash, came the decision to throw them over, dissolve the legislature, order new elections, stimulate the political pot to a furious boiling, and take chances that when the melée was ended the government would be on top with a new and more dependable supporting majority in the Reichstag and freed of the necessity of going to the Clericals for anything, unless on terms of essential mastery and command.

That, in a word, was the one reason for having an election at all. Of course the Social Democrats had been criticizing and making trouble too, but that was to be expected from them. They were regarded as a misfortune which must be borne with such grace as might be and which was not subject to amelioration. But the case of the Clericals was different. They were not irreconcilables; hence they must be forced to seek reconciliation or taught a wholesome lesson by being left out in the cold altogether. In various manifestos issued during the campaign, such as that addressed late in December to Lieutenant-General von Liebert, Chancellor von Bülow made it very plain that what he desired was a combination of the Conservatives, Liberals, and Radicals on such terms as would relieve the government of its humiliating dependence on the treacherous Clericals. He did not want to see the Clericals hopelessly weakened as a party, because he could conceive of circumstances under which they might yet be extremely useful in the playing off of opposing factions, but he wanted them humbled and rendered more pliable.

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The Campaign

The campaign was a spirited one, at least for Germany, where campaigns have sometimes been exceedingly dull affairs. Flaming posters, gaudy street banners, torchlight processions, brass bands, and other spectacular accessories of the American campaign have always been, and still are, all but unknown in the Fatherland. The German takes his call to the ballot-box seriously, even phlegmatically. Not that "General Apathy" has entire command of the situation. There is much "campaigning" and not a little real enthusiasm. But the battle is waged after all in mass-meetings of the most decorous sort and through a press which is under strict surveillance at every turn. It proceeds on sedate and orderly lines, except when occasionally the Socialists grow exuberant in their arraignment of the "existing order," and even then the ever-vigilant police are ready to interfere and disperse popular gatherings, confiscate papers, and restore the threatened decorum.

But the campaign just closed was of a far livelier sort than usual. Meetings were more numerous and more largely attended and certain characteristic, even if not altogether laudable, methods of fighting, such as buying up halls to prevent their use by rival parties and the driving off of political opponents with sticks and stones from the more backward localities, were never so much in evidence. At Weimar, for instance, Herr Bebel tried throughout the entire campaign to secure a hall for a Socialist rally, but local antipathy to the party was too strong and the project had to be given up. Elsewhere the case was reversed and the Socialists were able to keep their rivals in the streets.

Altogether there were nineteen parties in the struggle, and not only were all pulling in opposite directions but most of them were conspicuously lacking in unity within their own ranks. The appalling confusion which continually befogs German political activities because of the multiplicity of parties and the subdivision of issues was never greater. The one unifying thread which ran through it all was the effort of the government to throw off the Clerical yoke and, as far as possible, to discredit and weaken the Social Democracy.

As of course must always be the case, there were predictions galore of the result. Most of these are of interest now, if at all, because they proved so very wide of the mark. All the leading parties professed to expect materially to increase their numerical strength in the Reichstag, but it turns out that, broadly speaking, this consummation was attained in something like inverse proportion to the degree of ante-election confidence manifested. Under the German system a candidate for a seat in the Reichstag must get, not a mere plurality of the votes in his constituency, but an absolute majority, and when there is no such majority there must be a "Stichwahl," or second election, eight days later, between the two candidates who received the highest number of votes. It thus becomes impossible to cast up the gains and losses of the various parties with entire precision until the period for supplementary elections has elapsed.

The fact which looms above all others is that there has been a decisive victory for the government and a complete vindication of von Bülow's sagacity in dissolving the Reichstag and hazarding the fortune of a new election. The Conservative, Liberal and Radical parties have won at least twenty new seats. The government's victory, however, has come from a wholly unanticipated direction. It was intended to beat the Clericals; the returns show that it was the Social Democrats who were beaten. As for the Clericals, they have actually increased their popular vote, and probably their numerical strength in the Reichstag, and the one unsatisfactory aspect of the result from the government's standpoint is that the Centre may yet show sufficient strength to recover its old grasp on the balance of power. It will be very certain to do so unless it shall prove possible to hold the Conservatives, Liberals and Radicals strictly in line, and no one knows so well as the Kaiser what a difficult task that will be.

The Defeat of Social-Democracy

The most astonishing thing is the setback suffered by the Social Democrats. As is well known, one of the most important features of German political history

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in the last generation has been the steady and majestic advance of the Social Democracy from three per cent of the total electoral vote in 1871 to thirty-two per cent in 1903. In the elections of the last mentioned year the party gained twenty-five seats at a stroke, giving it the eighty-one it has since had.

During the recent campaign there was great rejoicing at the apparent short-sightedness of the government by which the way had been opened for another increment of the sort, and there was not the slightest doubt that the gain of four years ago would be duplicated. Herr Bebel thought to be conservative by putting the estimate at twenty new seats. Many predicted as high as forty. Not even the Kaiser or his Chancellor dared hope for a Socialist falling-off. But so it was destined to be, to the delight of some, to the chagrin of others, and to the amazement of all. In the new Reichstag the Social Democracy will have from twenty to thirty fewer seats than during the past four years; in other words, it will fall back to the level occupied before the great gains of 1903. It would be interesting to know, but exceedingly difficult to find out, how far this result indicates a reaction from the idealism of the Marxists and an ebbing of socialistic thought in general in the empire.

There are, however, certain considerations of a more or less tangible sort which clearly account for the outcome in part, if not wholly. For one thing there was a remarkable turning out of the stay-at-home vote, which of course is not to be identified with any one party, but which is almost never Socialist. In the election of 1903 there were over three million stay-at-homes, or nearly one-fourth of the total electorate. The number this year is not yet available, but it is known to have been unprecedentedly small. In the next place, the Socialists were caught unawares by the precipitate dissolution in December and found it extremely difficult to bring together in so short a time the funds they felt they needed for the campaign.

Furthermore, Germany, on the whole, like the United States, is passing through an era of prosperity and the times are not propitious for the gathering of a formidable vote of the unemployed and the discontented. It is hard for the Socialists to make headway when wages are as high as they are in the empire at present. On the other hand, they had the tactical advantage of posing as champions of economy and honest administration when the honor of the colonial branch of the government had been somewhat dimmed in these regards; and it would seem that they ought to have profited by the fact that, shortly before the election, news came of the surrender of the Herreros and the imminent close of the war, giving the government the appearance of having cried "Wolf" when there really was no occasion for the vote of seven millions, as the Socialists and Clericals contended.

The Meaning of the Kaiser's Triumph

Whatever the causes, the result is of the utmost importance from the standpoint both of domestic politics and international affairs. For Chancellor von Bülow personally it means the greatly increased confidence of the Kaiser and, unless he should take advantage of his triumph to seek well-earned retirement, a larger measure of control than ever in the policies of the empire. As soon as the results were fairly well known, on the morning following the election, Emperor William hastened to the Chancellor's house in the Wilhelmstrasse and congratulated him roundly on the soundness of judgment which he had displayed in dissolving the Reichstag.

For the Kaiser himself the victory has come as a most acceptable gift from his people on the occasion of his forty-eighth birthday, which fell two days after the election. It signifies unmistakably that on all essential matters of imperial policy the German people stand with their sovereign, that they are not hopelessly alienated from him because of his autocratic methods, as a portion of the press has tried to make us believe. It comes as an express authorization by the people of the continuance of those great projects: colonial expansion, the perfection of the army, the augmenting of the navy, the assertion of a general hegemony in European affairs, for which the present imperialistic régime preëminently stands, though the Chancellor has denied the intention of the government, after the new Reichstag is assembled, to bring forward

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any fresh measures of taxation to these ends. It evinces the thoroughgoing patriotism of the Germans, and in fact there is reason for believing that the knowledge that certain foreign peoples, particularly the French, would welcome a Socialistic victory because it would weaken and embarrass the imperial government had not a little to do with compassing the Socialist defeat.

The announcement of the results, especially of the staggering blow administered to the Socialists, aroused a higher pitch of enthusiasm than had been in evidence at any time during the campaign, higher, we are told, than Germany has known at any time during the seventeen years of the Kaiser's reign. Crowds besieged the palace of the Chancellor, singing the paean, *"Heil Dir Im Siegerkranz,"* and then moving on to within as close distance as the police would allow of the Imperial Palace and the palace of Crown Prince Frederick William, singing and cheering in a fashion to make the visiting American realize that there really had been an election and that not even the law of *lèse majesté* can crush out the universal proneness to exuberant enthusiasm when the country has once more "been saved." The newspapers flooded the streets of Berlin with "extras," which were distributed by the hundreds of thousands without charge, and for the first time in the history of German elections that indispensable accessory of the American newspaper on such occasions, the stereopticon and screen, was brought into service, with excellent effect. The Socialists are fast taking over the managerial features, good and bad, of parties in this country, and one may not unreasonably look forward to the day when elections in the Kaiser's empire will move along much the same lines as in the United States, allowing always of course for obvious limitations imposed by the German constitutional system and for the wide range of issues which can not possibly become political questions with us.

THE NEWSPAPER'S CONTEMPT FOR THE PUBLIC

AN INTERVIEW WITH THE CITY EDITOR

BY

A CITY EDITOR

IT happened one day that an ordinary citizen, who had suffered somewhat from the slings and arrows of twentieth century journalism, strolled into a newspaper office, inspired by mere curiosity to learn what he had done to deserve so great condemnation.

On an average day this protestant would in all likelihood have been met with a curt promise that his grievance — whose character is of no consequence here —would be "investigated." But, happily for the present recorder, it was a summer afternoon, and Saturday too; nearly every one concerned in making news, either inside the newspaper offices or out of them, had fled to those bournes whence no news issues; and the city editor was alone. It was the first time that, in the discharge of his duties, he had met an ordinary citizen. It was also the first time the ordinary citizen had met a city editor. They looked upon each other with the lively interest a student exhibits toward a new biological species. And before they had been many minutes together they had experienced one of those exchanges of personality which in works

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of fiction like "The Masquerader" are paraded as extraordinary. The citizen became the interviewer; the newspaper man the interviewed.

This is the interview:

* * * * *

Citizen—I have often wondered what you men, sitting here in seclusion from the world, and assuming not only to describe our activities, but to criticize, condemn and ridicule them, think of the people you treat in that manner.

City Editor — We don't think of them at all.

Citizen — Impossible.

City Editor — I am telling the exact truth. To the average newspaper worker, the man of the rank and file, that large, corpulent term, The Public, means nothing. The newspaper man is of an aloofness which has no parallel among the absent-minded scholars, the disdainful snobs, or the high financiers who are generally regarded as typically remote from mankind. We work here in complete indifference to the world in which you plod along so comfortably. Somewhere outside, we know, there exists a dim atmosphere into which our ideas are projected, but we have no acquaintance with that atmosphere, nor do we care to have. It is a fact, scarcely credible to you, doubtless, that the newspaper writer of the lower order — the reporter, let us say — cares absolutely nothing what the thousands of readers think of the quality of what he writes. A layman can not excite such a scribe by praise of his "stories." The sensation, to him, is no more intense than if one should say, "Handsome necktie you have on this morning."

Citizen — Then what holds the newspaper man to his task?

City Editor — You may well ask that. I have never been able to describe the compelling force which is so potent as to swallow whole and with terrible mastications, some of the finest intellects of our time. It is not fear of one's employer, for, as our saying is, "He can't do more than discharge us." Nor do we cling to this work because we love it. We hate it. But every victim of this strange madness, every man in whose veins runs the unclassifiable but unmistakable fever, every man who has not come here because he failed as a bookkeeper, or grew tired of being a street-car conductor, will work his fingers to the bone, and his brain to the raw nerve, for the sake of "good stuff."

Citizen — Ah, then the newspaper business is art.

City Editor — On the contrary, it is a trade. It requires as much specific training, and as much severe experience, as the most skilled of skilled labor. That is what I tell the high school graduates — but no matter. Certainly our work is not art, either intrinsically or in the way we regard it. See how we differ — especially in the indifferentism of which I spoke a moment ago — from the actor, who fawns upon the public with a sickening yearning for proximity; from the musician, whose eye, as his hands sweep the keyboard, sweeps the audience to note the effect; from the painter, to whom a gallery of one kind means as much as the other kind does to the actor; from the teacher — a potential artist — who touches the public the closest, and loves it too, if he is worth his salt. We know none of those emotions.

Citizen — But there must be times when the newspaper man thinks of the public. It is forced upon him. I have heard that he studies its varying moods and governs himself accordingly.

City Editor — He does. He sees what it devours on the street-cars and trains; he must learn with the exactness of science when it tires of one subject, and inclines toward another. Oh yes, in that sense we are far from indifferent to people in general. You wish to know how we regard the public after such inspection? Precisely as the public regards us—as something contemptible, but necessary.

Yes, we sneer at the public, and feel ourselves justified in doing so. From our experience with it, the public is loutish, undiscriminating, mendacious—especially mendacious. It is a world of confused and often malicious gossip from which we must try to sift the truth. Every important occurrence brings to us a flood of poisoned rumors, anonymous telephone messages, roundabout "tips" and whatnot, which represent the awakening of the public from slumber. What happened when that apartment building caught fire the other day? Why, my men were besieged with informants, who pressed upon them terrible stories of the

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cremation of the entire Jones family, of the loss of $100,000 worth of jewelry in the Smith flat, and similar sensations which were (from the reporter's point of view) too good to be true. Is it any wonder that, having encountered in the public an inaccuracy and a wilful falsity which quite puts to the blush the yellowest of yellow journalism, he should feel only contempt for the people with whom he deals in collecting news? Is it any wonder that he, having tested to the full the morbid gloating over horrors, the secret zest for scandal, the worship of the bizarre, which exists in the newspaper reader, good as well as bad, should despise his audience? The monkey which is forced into a scarlet jacket and made to turn somersaults abhors the swarthy organ-grinder who compels it; and if the most histrionic of animals thus rebels from the abnormal, what are the feelings of men who must feed the abnormal into the cavernous, insatiable maw of the public?

Citizen — Perhaps this accounts for some of the surprising deceptions you practice upon the public.

City Editor — I grant you that in many cases that is the reason. I will not admit, however, that all newspaper men are quite as cold-blooded as that in their presentation of daily events. If a "fake" appears in the average newspaper it is due usually to the presence of some pariah of the profession, who is speedily detected and hustled out of the neighborhood; or it may be due to an overplus of enthusiasm, or to a virulent outbreak of the newspaper madness, which as a rule creeps stealthily in our veins. Yet there are newspapers which, as you say, deliberately set out to hoodwink that public which they know to be careless of truth save where it touches a man's individual pocketbook or reputation. I may mention some instances of these manifestations of contempt.

The first is the most obvious and, all things considered, the most shameful. It is the plain, bald "fake."

It is unnecessary to cite illustrations. I may mention, however, that the "fake" as commonly practiced, rarely takes so silly a form as the mere recounting of events that never happened. It is an art of ellipsis, innuendo, and typography. Behind every "fake" with which any pains have been taken there lurks a ghostly element of truth. Necessarily the headline is not based on this truth; but the process by which the headline is evolved from the string of specious suggestions which make up the article is so clever that the "faker" can count on the undiscriminating public taking in the general effect only. It is the same principle as that by which the verdant farmer, when urged to buy a skyscraper for fifty dollars, is made — hypnotically, if you will — to see only the skyscraper, the apparent agent of its sale, and the roll of greenbacks. Now what actuates the confidence man in picking his victim? Why, it is contempt — contempt for the farmer's lack of worldly wisdom and his superficiality of vision. So with the "faker."

Another newspaper trick is the "crusade." Morally speaking, it is of a slightly higher order than the "fake." It does not necessarily involve black magic or skilful adulteration of news products. To all seeming it arises out of altruism; but its real source is the restless creative energy of the newspaper man. Behold a void, and no news in it. Let there be news, says the editor or the reporter, and behold there is news. Immediately there develops a need of free ice for the poor, more police, cheaper coal, honest taxpayers, or a new political party. It is additional proof that the "crusade" is of a higher order than the "fake," though in a way proof only that it is of a cleverer order, that these "movements" in the public interest generally deal with something the public thinks it wants. But that is the point — the public, very likely, does not need these things at all. Perhaps coal was reduced only the previous month to the lowest price for which it could be mined; perhaps there are already as many police as the city treasury — or the graft treasury — can pay. It matters not to the "crusader." He knows that if he pictures the abuses, the public will imagine itself abused. He knows that if he kindles the spark, the public will blow upon it, with an exhibition of foolishly puffed-out cheeks. Preachers will preach about the "movement," organizations of mercantile men will pass resolutions, reformers will leap

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from their pallets — assuming, for the moment, that reformers sleep on pallets — and address woman's clubs; anonymous letters will pour into the newspaper offices. It is all much simpler than advertising a patent medicine. It pays. It procures LL.D. degrees for editors.

Could this be done, would it be done, with a body of newspaper readers worthy of respect? The newspaper man feels like one who shouts to a crowd of imbeciles, "Oh, see the green cow sailing across the sky." He knows that every mother's son of them will immediately stand agape.

A third manifestation of our contempt is the cheap aping of art. Every newspaper must now have its "art features," its magazine sections, its "cut-outs," its pictorial supplements, its engraved headlines, its "true stories by noted writers." In part this is due to the amazing cheapness with which such things can be produced nowadays, and the consequent belief of the public that it should have the earth, and the water under the earth, for five cents. But were it not for the contempt of the newspaper for the esthetic ideals of the public, no editor would attempt to cram the art of the world into fifty pages of cheap paper. He knows his patrons are satisfied with half a step toward beauty. If their senses are vaguely charmed, they ride home happy to their aspiring families—to the chicks whose silly mouths are stretched, waiting for the parents to drop in the daily morsels of wood-pulp. In like manner the dishonest grocer sells bad canned meat to a Chinaman. The Chinaman reads the label, buys, and hastens away with shining face. And the grocer despises him the more after having swindled him.

Lastly, if you will bear with me, Mr. Citizen, I will speak of political chicanery. This leads us to the observation of one of the most contemptible attributes of democracy — the love of politics for its own sake. The public likes "hot contests." It likes to see two respected citizens fly at each others' throats, bribe voters, fling falsehoods, and make promises impossible of fulfilment. The average editor or proprietor is adept at setting off such pyrotechnics. Often he has private interests at stake. Oftener he is abetting a club-fellow who has tired of mere money-getting, and desires a plaything.

"But how about the public?" asks the friend.

"Oh," says the editor, "I know the public. We have had no spirited election for some time."

Then the newspaper proceeds to make the election spirited. It goes after the opposition rough-shod, scorning to use the ancient weapon of editorial invective, and impressing the news-staff into the great battle. The rival candidate develops cancer of the throat, or he is found to have gone into bankruptcy years before, or his wife is discovered to have once "worked out." The newspaper editor calls mass-meetings, creates lawsuits, gathers huge petitions; extols the good qualities of his own candidate and conceals his bad ones, printing his speeches in full (after writing them for him) and makes sure that the candidate's middle name, derived from a revolutionary hero, always appears in print. And the public — well, the public says it's politics, that's all. The candidates "shouldn't have gone into it if they didn't expect to have a little mud-throwing." As a matter of fact, the newspaper would not have gone into it without the assurance that the public would "stand for the mud." They do "stand for it," Mr. Citizen; they like it; and we whose gorge rises at what we write would willingly see the herds of swine known as "our readers" driven down into the sea to their death.

Citizen — You amaze me. Surely there is a remedy for such a state of affairs.

City Editor — There is. Let the newspaper stand on the same plane, be subject to the same restrictions, as any other quasi-public institution. Let people make the proper conduct of the daily journals as much their business as they do the operation of street-car lines and gas companies — only we must beg that we be not annoyed by twaddle as to who are the rightful owners of the public utility with which we are connected. As matters stand now, the leniency of the public with the follies of the press works to the disgrace of the former and the corruption of the latter. There is no reason why people should submit to "fakes," "crusades," pseudo-art, and newspaper politics. The remedy of the people is in the law. Is

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there never to be litigation against the dishonest news-disseminator? Is not the man who sells you a pennyworth of badly printed lies guilty of obtaining money under false pretenses?

Wake up, Mr. Citizen. Consider the abuse of the printing-press not as an evil beyond your jurisdiction, and, on the whole, rather entertaining; but as a grave menace, to be watched, curbed, disciplined by law. Send a few of us to prison. We shall serve our terms cheerfully, and emerge sleek and sane. And above all, we shall come forth with a new regard for the public because it has at last asserted its rights.

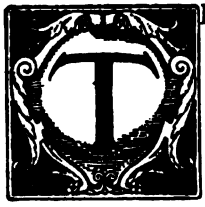
* * * * *

At this point the telephone bell rang, and the interview ended. The citizen departed, with thoughtful mien. And perhaps, some time, he and his fellow citizens will take the city editor's advice.

THE RAILROADS' FIGHT WITH SNOW

BY

H. D. FRANKEL



THE railroads of the West have fought a great battle with the elements. It was an unprecedented fight. There have been tieups and blockades for days, but never did elements so completely tie up traffic on all western roads as since December 10.

There were millions of tons of snow to be swept from the track. There were drifts so thick that half a dozen engines back of the staunchest rotaries could do nothing with them. There came rain on top of the snow and freezing temperature on top of the thaw, making of snowdrifts veritable icebergs.

There were cold spells so intense that water froze in engines attached to rotaries, so cold that human beings had to give up the struggle and turn back until the elements smiled again. There were enough shovels and picks used in North Dakota by the Great Northern, Northern Pacific and Soo lines to dig a good section of the Panama canal.

And yet the roads never gave up.

They fought and to-day they have apparently won.

First it was branch lines snowed in. Then it was main lines. Then it was both.

Then came thaws that swept the main line clear — for a day.

Then the thaw sent huge drifts from the sides of hills flying down onto the tracks just as tireless crews had secured a clear right of way. And the battle had to be fought over again.

The general managers, the superintendents, the section crews had equally little sleep. They just studied out battle formations and fought.

The first big tie-up came with a heavy fall of snow December 8-10. The Great Northern and Soo had the most trouble. The lines were cleared up, and were in fairly good running order. Then came the fall in temperature and a fall of snow that stunned the Soo line completely and tied up things on the Great Northern and Northern Pacific so that sleepless nights were spent by magnates and officials. This was on December 12. The Soo line, Kenmare branch, cutting the Red River Valley, and part of the line from the eastern part of the state, were snowed in. This line was opened February 4. In two solid months not a train passed over it. Rotaries worked against the snows from the Kenmare and Thief River ends, but it was like fighting iron with glass.

The Great Northern lines were equally bad, but a thaw and the availability of crews and rotaries of unusual power soon

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cleared part of the branches and the main line.

Then President Hill grew busy. He heard that his Rocky Mountain divisions were blockaded as badly as his Dakota lines. Papers were telling the people that passenger trains from the coast were held for hours and sometimes days before drifts. Traffic was paralyzed. So Mr. Hill hied himself to New York. Going from one rotary constructor to the other he found no chance to get new ones built in time to fight drifts, this winter.

Hundreds of passengers stalled by snow were being fed at hotels along the road at company expense. It was costing thousands.

Rotaries must be had at any cost. Finally Mr. Hill located some rotaries en route on the Erie to New York. They were to go to a German railroad.

Then wires got hot with bidding. Finally Mr. Hill secured the German company's consent to sell the machines on condition that others were built for the company later. And the plows were rushed to Dakota and the Dakota plows to the Rockies. Then all available laborers were rushed to Dakota and the battle began on both the Great Northern and Northern Pacific, the Soo giving up in desperation after exhausting every available means.

And the fight was well waged. About January 10, the lines were in fair shape except a few in the northern part of the state. Trains began coming in on time again or a few hours late.

Then came another problem worse than any before. A tremendous fall of snow, followed by a four-day blizzard and temperature down into the 30's below the zero mark. And the cry, "Coal famine" arose from towns cut off from communication with the rest of the world. The blocking of the branches and general delays had cut off supplies of all kinds from surrounding big points. There was in most cases food enough but coal was missing. Farmers in desperation chopped down telephone poles and burned them up. Raids are said to have been made on the coal bunkers of the railroads.

The Interstate Commerce Commission took up the crisis and there was a hue and cry that shook the whole nation.

President Hill rushed Louis W. Hill, his favorite son, vice-president of the Great Northern system, to the scene of the famine. He found that some cities were really suffering. He telegraphed his father that a coal combine was to blame. The steel companies and James J. Hill joined forces and the result was a loan of five hundred ore cars and thirty engines from the Duluth, Mesabe & Northern line to the Hill lines. These were filled with coal at Duluth and Superior and rushed to Dakota points. But the cars were blocked in transit. Getting past the Minnesota line into Dakota, drifts were encountered and branch lines were again tied up. Then began a terrific battle of rotaries to get lines open to send the coal in. After days of toil — nights as well — the lines were cleared in so far that occasionally a car could be sent to small towns.

Wires were still kept hot with stories of suffering, and the Great Northern established a regularly organized relief bureau. On January 28 two hundred cars of coal and foodstuffs were sent out from Larimore, the farthest eastern point where tracks were clear, into the suffering district. A few days later two hundred more cars got through and the relief work is now going on.

The tracks were fairly clear before the end of January. Traffic would come through but slowly and yet trains were beginning to move. Finally on February 1, traffic was practically resumed. Rumors of suffering had died out and things looked brighter.

Then came a terrific windstorm. It blew great drifts across the main line and the thermometer went far below zero. At points it touched forty. Again the battle was fought and by night part of the tracks were clear on branch lines and the main line was open so that trains were moving slowly. Passengers from the coast were getting through, although two to four days late.

On the night of February 1, the thermometer rose and a drenching rain fell. This washed a lot of drifts down into the tracks, and then came a freeze-up with anywhere from twenty-to-forty-below weather. Imagine this battle. Men scarcely able to breathe in the air, to keep warm wrapped in clothes so tight that they could scarcely wield shovels. Engines frozen over, steam cooling in the

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boilers of engines back of rotaries, water frozen solid in the tenders of engines and tracks so slippery that wheels rolled round and round without moving an inch. That is what the element fighters had to contend with.

The thermometer went down and down until it was a regular thing to see it register thirty and thirty-six or thirty-eight below. The main line closed and was opened again every few hours. The branch lines were open and closed, and so it kept up. Then came warmer weather February 4 and the lines were practically open again.

High officials worked like laborers. Louis W. Hill himself was stuck three days in the snowdrifts above Mandan, North Dakota.

Here is a sample telegram, one of a thousand received at the general offices of the Great Northern road by President Hill from F. E. Ward, the general manager of the Great Northern system:

> Very bad storm last night and still drifting badly this morning. Wind is going down some. Minot division has freight train snowed in between Grand Harbor and Penn. On account of severity of weather this morning, unable to get men out of Devils Lake. Will be late at best before main line opened. Branches will undoubtedly be closed from one to two days. Merchandise situation not at all bad. Coal situation in shape for material improvement when line reopened. Will give further advice later in day. Just leaving here for Devils Lake on foot.

Ward walked eleven miles that day through the snow. Then he got aboard a snow-plow and directed fighting a sixteen-foot drift 987 feet long. He got his nose nipped but he broke through the drift. He demonstrated he was a general. And his soldiers fought well.

And the battle between the railroads and the elements is still waging.

THE REVOLUTION IN POLAND

BY

ALEXANDRE D'HEAUTREAVE

"WHEN will the disturbances in Poland end, and what will be the ultimate effect on that unhappy country?" These are the questions which I often hear asked when I come in contact now with people from Western Europe or America. Viewed from afar the situation appears so complicated, and so many diverse elements seem to cause the confusion, that the best way to unravel the tangle is to leave the cities and to describe the conditions to be found in the country. For the cause of the trouble does not rest in such great towns as Lodz or Warsaw. Their riots and bomb-throwings are but the manifestations of a difficulty the explanation of which must be sought on the endless plains where the wheat and the potatoes are grown. Poland

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is and always has been a nation essentially agricultural, and the little industry that has grown up during the past years is, for the greater part, centered in foreign hands and does not to any marked extent affect the national life.

Leave the railway that runs to Warsaw from the German frontier, at one of the white stations. They are all alike and resemble Italian villas with red Swiss roofs. Turn into the country. Your carriage will lumber over great stones or run the risk of stopping altogether in the loose sand. On either side there should be trees, but all the branches have been cut away and stolen by the peasants and only bare, tall poles remain. There are no fences or hedges, and one has an uninterrupted view of the broad, flat fields. Even to the stranger seeing them for the first time, it is easy to distinguish those of the gentleman from those of the peasant. The former are of great extent, carefully planted and, as a rule, in good condition; the latter mere narrow strips, poorly cultivated and miserable. There is a carelessness and disorder, a pitiable ignorance about all that the peasants undertake, which renders their work unmistakable. There is also a difference in the kind of crop planted. On the estates of the nobles are immense stretches of potatoes and sugar beets that will be turned into ready money at the sugar factories and the distilleries, but the peasant has little beside his grain, most of which he will eat himself.

It is a long time before we reach a village. The corn, as Madame de Staël remarked a hundred years ago, seems to be tended by invisible hands. One meets few people on the road and sees fewer still in the fields. At last, from a distance, one notices what appears to be a forest of old trees. Beyond, however, peeps the onion-shaped tower of a church and, perhaps, the tall chimney of a sugar factory. It is a village with the park of the proprietor. The houses, low, dirty and thatched with decaying straw, straggle along on the side of the road. Opposite, as a rule, is the long, blank wall of the gentleman's garden, so high that the trees and flowers are scarcely seen. All is dirt and filth. Pools of evil-smelling water stand before most of the houses; the pigs, geese, and half-naked children roll around in the mud together; no gardens, no roses or fruit trees, as one sees in England, only the filth and the road and bare, stark poverty. For over a year I have lived beside such a wretched village and I can say that the dirt and the misery is not due in any measure to either the oppression or the indifference of the nobles, but to the blind ignorance of the peasants themselves. I have seen model cottages built on the latest plan and fitted with all the necessary requirements, turned by a few months of peasant occupancy into hovels more fit for pigs than men. I have seen the young trees placed along the road destroyed to make horse-whips. To convince a peasant woman of the true value of soap and water is quite impossible. They never wash either the person or the house, and the condition of both can be imagined. Further the desire to improve their circumstances is hampered by the Chinese wall of their suspicion. They always imagine and seek some ultimate motive that could lead the master to wish to do something for them, and their natural cunning is sure to suggest that the wisest policy is to do exactly the contrary.

Pass, however, beyond the wall, and you are in a different world. A great park laid out in the English fashion, carefully kept walks, borders of flowers and a long, rambling house, in no sense a château, but a pleasant home that one could love. Few of the residences in Poland are more than one story high and are of stone covered with plaster. The interiors are comfortable and have a certain dignity that makes one think of the tobacco planters' homes in Virginia. There are the same polished floors and Greek pillars, and the same display of silver and family portraits in the dining-room. Adjoining the park and enclosed by the same wall is the courtyard. Here also all is civilized and modern; the horses are excellent and the farming machinery from England or Germany. The cows stand in stables that could be taken as models, and the entire compound shows evidence of order and system. The same striking contrast is visible in the people themselves. The proprietor you will find a cultivated gentleman, with an alert, eager face, that seems to belong to an entirely different race than the sullen, heavy-featured, hand-kissing peasant.

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Between these two extremes of high education and complete ignorance, of comfort and abject poverty, there is no middle class. From the very earliest times the Poles, both peasant and noble, have had a horror of anything like trade or business. All that relates to this is and has been for centuries in the hands of the Jews. Contrary to Western Europe, there has developed in Poland no industrial class. A Pole will work on the land, either as master or man, and from his own desire he will do nothing else. From this national instinct arises the great difficulty, the question of land. When the Emperor Alexander II. gave to the head of each family a section of land, it was enough for the time being, but since then we have had, as a rule, three divisions of this little farm. Each son wished to be a farmer and nothing else. Although the population has increased, the number of artisans has remained much the same. Accordingly the amount of land which the peasants now hold is not enough for their desires, and they cast longing eyes on the broad fields of the master. The Socialist agitator finds in each village prepared ground for his doctrine, if it consists of a proposal to divide the great estates among the peasants. If, on the other hand, he belongs to the party which advocates the common, or government ownership of land, he will find himself opposed as much by the peasantry as by the nobility. Most of the agitators who went about last winter and during the spring, had maps on which was carefully marked down the section which each subscriber to the party would receive at the great division.

This desire for land is the real root of the greater part of the disturbances. It is the great storehouse from which parties of all complexions draw their energy. It causes the dislike and the distrust that are so prominent in the relationship between master and man and which develops so easily into the excesses of active revolution. The bomb thrown at a Russian official in the streets of Warsaw or the destruction of the house of a Polish gentleman originate from the same real cause. In the eyes of the peasant the proprietor is occupying unjustly that which should belong to him, and to this extent is his natural enemy. He is a source from which, in one way or another, must be extracted all that is possible. The medicines which the mistress gives to the sick, the contributions to the schools, the clothes and the food to the very poor, the alms which are never refused, the assistance and advice are only the things which the master *must* give. They call for no gratitude, and the peasant who has been helped the most is often the first to cause trouble. The leader during our last strike was a man whose wife we had sent to the hospital in Warsaw and cared for through a long and expensive illness. To steal from the master is also no wrong. One is but taking one's own, and everything from the silver to a necktie, or from matches to a farm wagon that is not locked up, will sooner or later disappear. Every master carries a great bunch of keys that lock from the sugar bowl to the front door. Characteristically, however, they do not take money itself. That appears to be apart from the master and something to which they have no right.

As yet among the older peasants the former loyalty and habit of mind that survived from the Middle Ages has not entirely died out, and it is this conservative element that prevents absolute anarchy. The grandfathers preserve some influence, and when this is removed things will be worse than they are at present. One often meets three generations coming home from work. The old man will come and kiss the hand and say, "May the Lord be praised"; the son will lift his hat, but the grandson passes on without taking any notice. Last spring, at the time of our first strike, this inherited conservatism exhibited itself in a very curious manner. On a near-by property the laborers had stopped work, demanding more money. We received the news during dinner that they were coming armed and in great numbers. The silver was hid, the children were sent away, the footmen, whom the peasants particularly dislike, were put in the wine-cellar, and the master and mistress prepared to meet the mob. The peasants, men and women, came down the great road sharpening their long knives and calling to our people to come out and join them. The proprietor and his wife, unarmed and quite unprotected, went to the entrance gate to meet them. At the sight of the man

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whose ancestors nad been the masters there for centuries, the old manner of thinking came back, and, taking off their hats, they came and kissed his hand, begging pardon. But such a sight will never be seen again. During the last strike when we walked the fields, there were "Brownings" in our pockets.

As the real desire of the peasants is for the land itself, no amount of increase in their wages will content them. Any concession made leads to greater demands in the future. It is taken as a sign of weakness or fear, and but strengthens their belief that the master is holding what belongs to them. The disturbances always first break out on the estates of those nobles who have been most active in reform or have done the most good. A certain baron who took no revenue from his property at all, merely reserving the right to hunt, who for years had given back to his laborers in one form or another all that was earned, was the first to have his château attacked. The representative of our district to the douma, a man who for his advocacy of the peasants' cause was known as the "tribune of the people," returned from St. Petersburg to meet a strike on his own estate. Those who pay the lowest wages are the most faithfully served. The peasants are afraid of them, imagining that they must have some tremendous power in reserve or they would not dare to act so boldly. In the neighborhood was a lady who had not paid her men for over a year. In the midst of almost universal trouble she was served as usual.

The national question: the partial or complete independence of Poland, the liberty of the press, the right of assembly and the other demands of the hour, have a meaning only to those peasants who own a sufficient amount of land. The others are too poor and too ignorant to understand anything beyond their village. They are even too uninstructed to form a systematic revolution. They do not understand how to work together. This is the reason why the disturbances apparently die down; are to-day in this government and to-morrow in the next. They are all animated by a common desire, but united by no central organization.

When the constitution was granted, a meeting was held in our village by the master to explain what the new conditions meant to them as Poles. The peasants were absolutely unresponsive and uninterested. The subject was some vague matter which concerned the gentlemen, but which they did not care to touch. Only when the foundation of a school was proposed did they join in the discussion at all. Even if the government did grant the demands of the national party to the limit, the difficulties would not cease. The nobles and the larger peasant proprietors might be content, but the mass of the people never. They demand a new distribution of the land, a sufficient distribution, and nothing more. Not until the great wall of the gentleman's park ceases to stretch along one side of the village will there be permanent peace in Poland.

Another result of the land question, indirect it is true, but still in reality absolutely connected, is the state of terrorism that exists in the governments of Ploc and Warsaw from the bandits. These bands of robbers have no connection with either the national movement or the agitations of the Socialists, although they often do the work of the latter. They are formed of young men, most of whom are under twenty, who, trained by the Socialists to disregard the property of the nobility, take advantage of the general disorganization to rob and kill at will. It is the acute form of the dislike between peasant and noble. In the grim cruelty and tortures which they inflict on their victims they manifest the deep hatred and desire for revenge which they feel. Not content with taking the valuables and money, they finish the work by pulling the hair out of madame and the finger-nails of monsieur and by violating all the daughters. In none of the attacks that have been made on the country houses have the peasants ever shown any disposition to defend their master, and one of the most awful outrages was committed with the courtyard full of workingmen, who made no attempt to save their mistress. All of the murders do not arise from a desire to rob. Some are done with the mere wish to kill a person in position. The victims of this class are mostly overseers of outlying farms, who are made away with for the sufficient reason that they are overseers. Death comes to them, as a rule, in the

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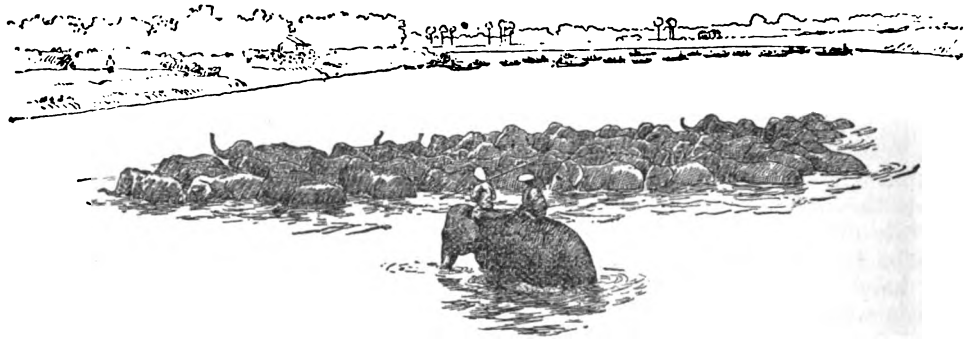
most horrible forms, such as being choked with manure or sawed to pieces with dull knives.

The question naturally arises: "To what end will all this lead?" The answer is very simple. The disturbances will continue until either, from the initiative of the government or the ruin of the nobility itself, the great estates are divided. This means, of course, the absolute destruction of the existing order and the formation of a new state under peasant rule.



IN THE LAND OF THE WHITE ELEPHANT

BY

ELIZA R. SCIDMORE

AUTHOR OF "JAVA, THE GARDEN OF THE EAST," "WINTER INDIA," ETC.

SIAM,* known to the groundlings only as the home of the white elephant and the famous twins, stands as one of the last independent countries of Asia, and, unlike Persia and China, is not under the financial domination of any European power. The little kingdom is prosperous, and has become so progressive that much of the picturesque and distinctively national life is being swept away.

Siam is wedged between two greedy powers who look enviously upon her rich territory, cut by the River Meinam, which carries down rafts of teak logs from northern forests and, by its annual inundation, enriches the rice plains of the south, which are the greatest wealth producers of the country. The teak forests are leased to foreign concerns, and each log is marked and taxed by the government, as in Burma. Irrigation works and canals are extending the area of rice culture each year and bringing the rice farmer nearer to market. Several of the princes own rice estates of Texas proportions on which modern methods and machinery are employed. Rice mills, which are up to date in every respect, line the river bank at Bangkok, and a fleet of rice steamers crowd the stream through the winter months, loading cargoes for all the world.

Bangkok, which has justly the name of the Venice of the East, has seen the canoes on the river crowded by steam launches, but the little dugouts swarm in the klongs, or canals, with which the city is cut, and every floating house has its little boat tethered to the steps. In other days, every legation and foreign establishment sought a river-fronting site, but now they flee from the noisy, noisome neigh-

*We wish to acknowledge the courtesy of the editor of the *National Geographic Magazine* in assisting us to obtain material with which to illustrate this article

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A KLONG OR CANAL IN BANGKOK AT LOW TIDE
Several of these are cut through the city

borhood, and build far out on suburban fields, away from the mists of the cholera-dealing river. The miry lane behind the river-fronting legations and business houses, where only the elephant used to carry passengers, is now a broad, paved street, with an electric tram-car roaring down its length. Gharries and phaetons, victorias and dog carts driven by Tamils and Malays, crowd the clumsy, Chinese-built jinrikishas to the curb.

Shops line this New Road for all the two miles between the rice mill suburb and the palace walls, and every shop has a Chinese proprietor. In fact, one can hardly see the Siamese in Siam, because of the numbers of Chinese, and in the street crowds of Bangkok, the Chinese are as ten to one, all of them from Hainan and Swatow. The two races mingle amicably, and the children of Siamese and Chinese parentage are said to combine the quickness of one and the solid qualities of the other, and to be infinitely superior to the children of pure stock. There has been Chinese blood in the royal family for generations back, and both the handsome Queen and her brother, the clever Prince Devawongsee, who directs the foreign affairs of Siam, show plainly the Chinese blood of one grandparent.

The King is reputed "the handsomest

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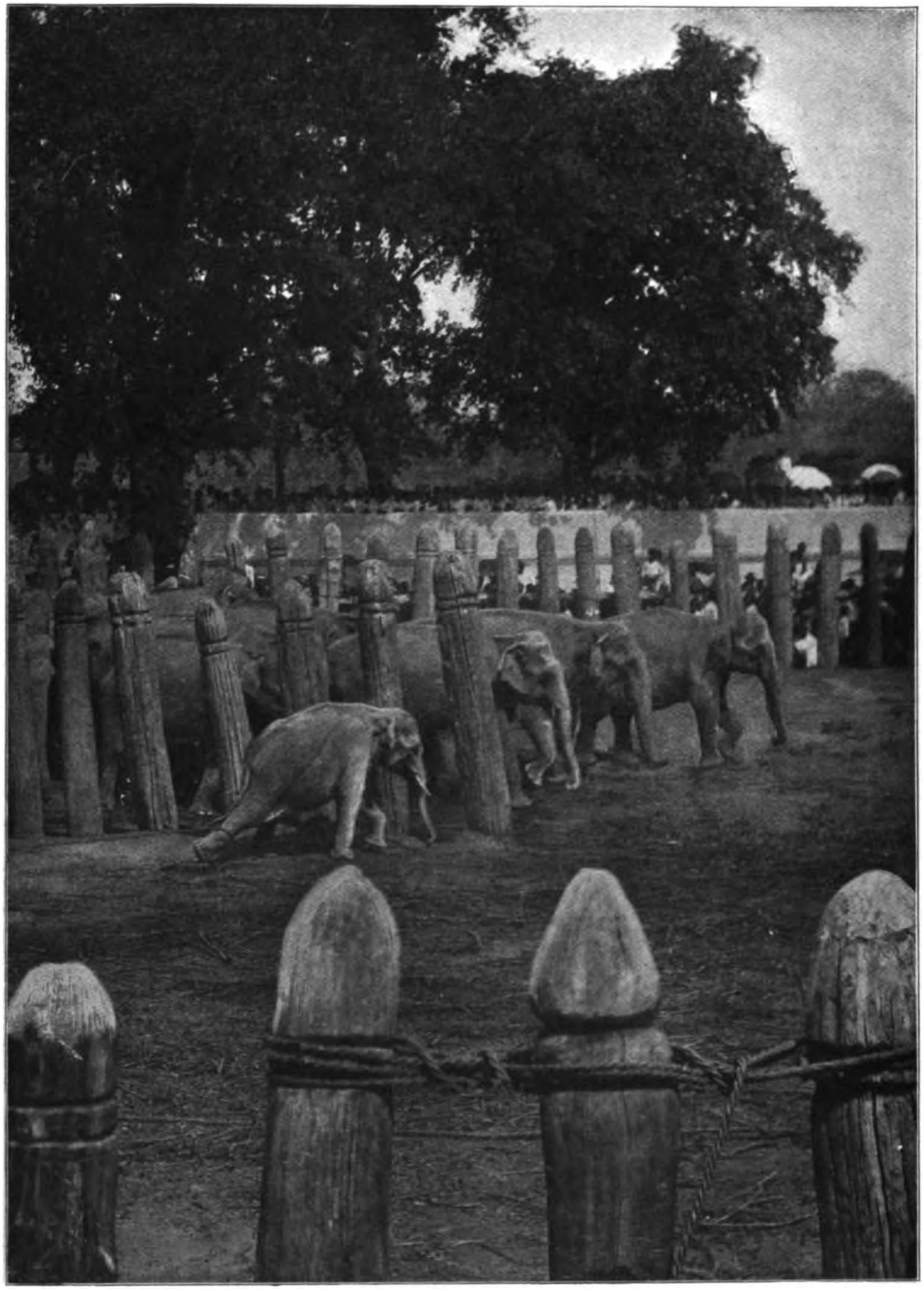

A WILD YOUNG TUSKER CAPTURED AND MADE FAST TO A STAKE

A herd of wild elephants has been driven into a walled and stockaded kraal for the King's inspection. From them he selects some for his stable and some to be sold. The rest go free

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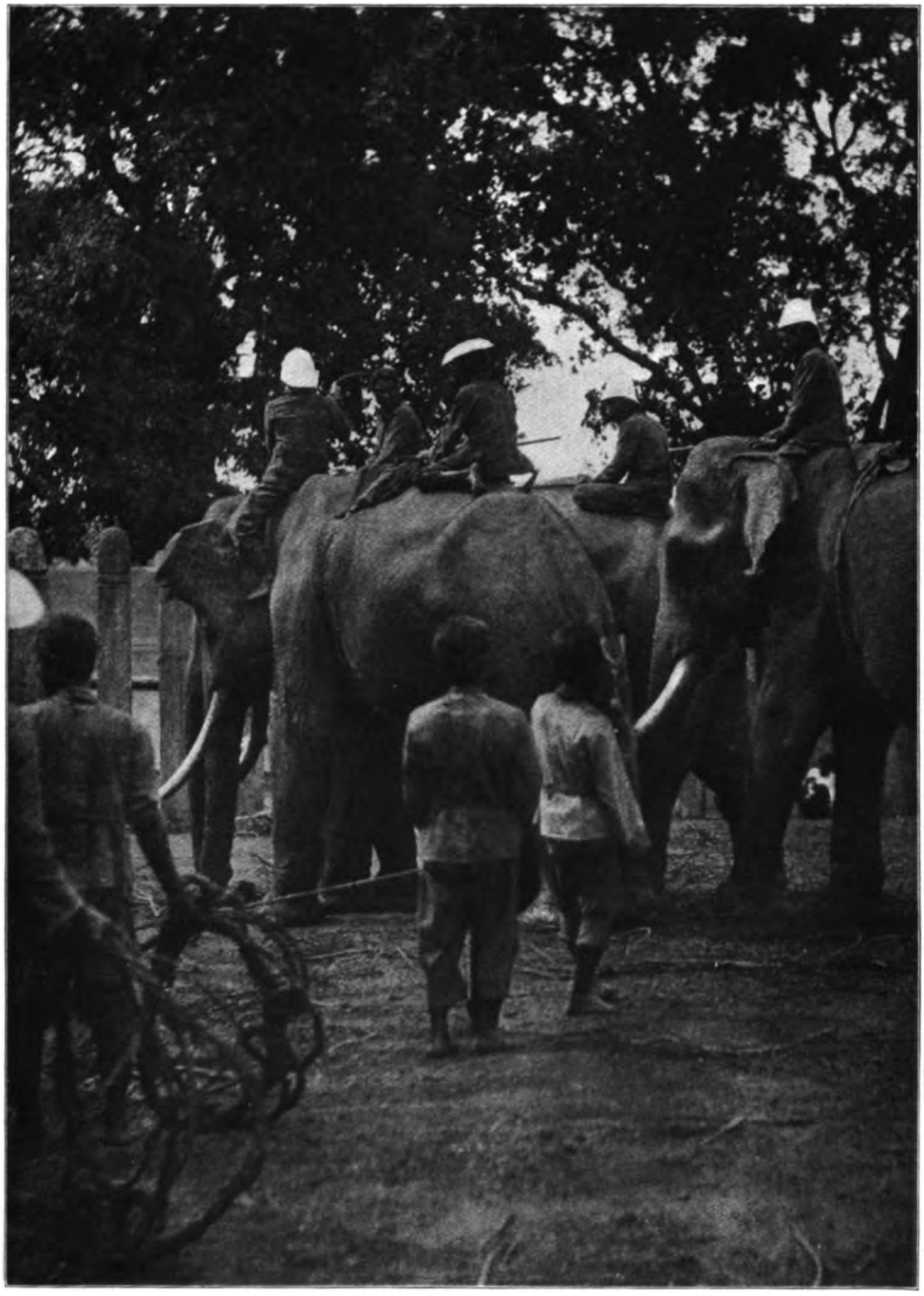

LEADING OUT A CAPTURED ELEPHANT

The tame elephants, easily distinguishable by their plump, well-groomed appearance, train their captive brethren in the various duties assigned to them, for elephants are great imitators

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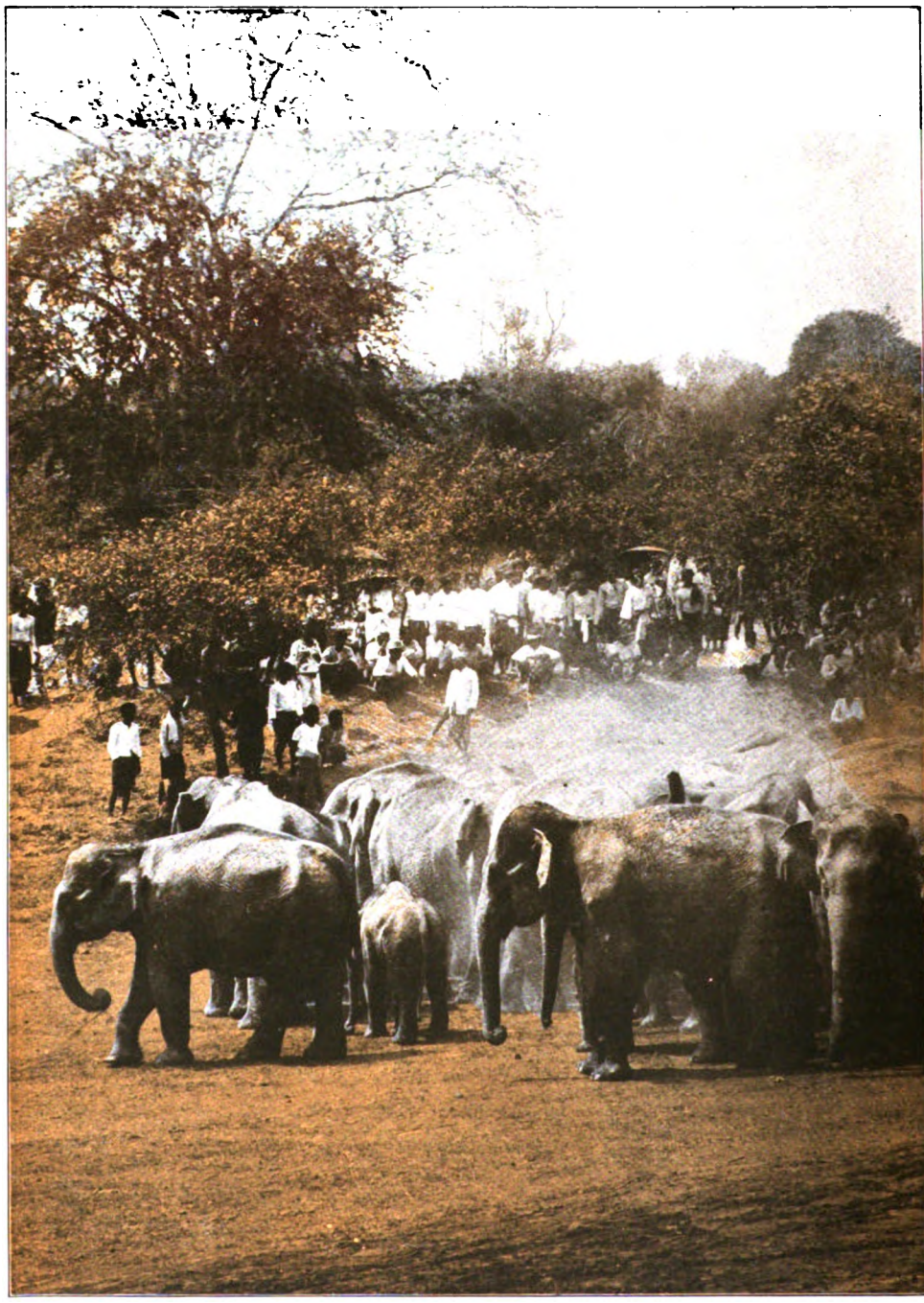

THE ELEPHANT ROUND-UP AT AYUTHIA

From the jungles the wild elephants are driven across the meadow down to the river bank and across to the King's kraal

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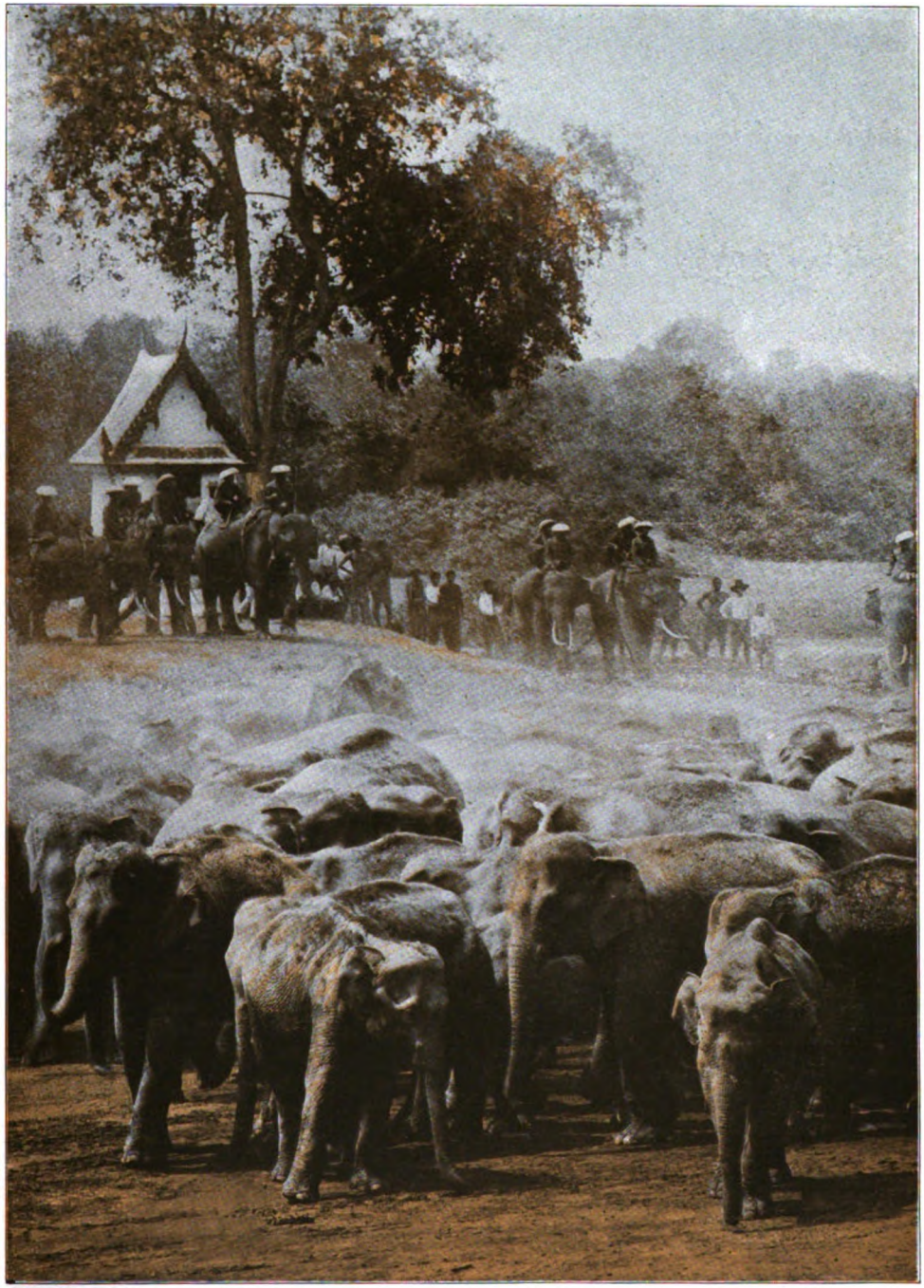

THE WILD ELEPHANTS DIRECTED BY THEIR TAME COUSINS
Lean and bony-looking, with rough coats, they present a great contrast to the tame elephants

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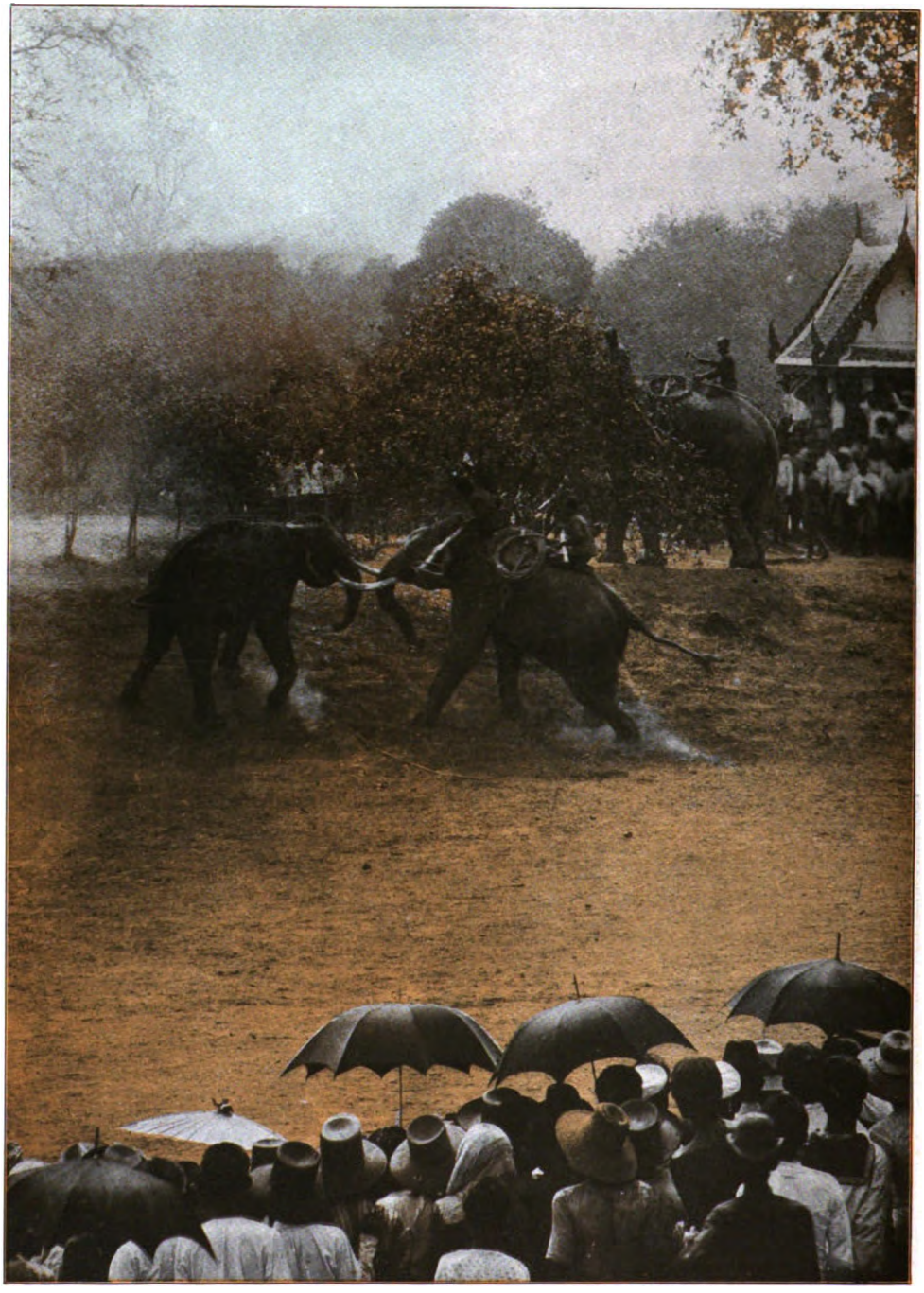

A BATTLE ROYAL BETWEEN A TAME ELEPHANT AND A NEWCOMER
Sometimes captured elephants will break loose from the stakes and in a frenzy attack the first animal in sight

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man in Asia," and he well looks the part. His father was a scholarly monk, who was called from a monastery to the throne, and who was a devoted student of English and English literature all his life. The present King had English governesses and tutors, and has traveled much in Europe and in his part of the East. The present Crown Prince was sent to England to complete his studies at Oxford, and returned home by way of America and Japan. Soon after his return, he observed the old Siamese custom of prince and noble, shaved his head, donned the yellow robes, and spent six months in a monastery, leading the austere life of any other Buddhist monk. He even went through the conventional begging of food from door to door, as did the founder of his religion; and the tonsured monk presented himself to his fellow believers at the Japanese legation, and held his begging bowl to be filled with rice by the gracious chatelaine.

The King of Siam is the one Buddhist sovereign, and is the defender of that faith which has longest retained its original purity in Siam. In the twelfth century, Siam was called upon to reform the corrupted Buddhism of Ceylon and restore it again to its original character. Siamese pilgrims are always to be found at the oldest of Buddhist shrines in India and Ceylon; Siamese princes are munificent patrons of these sacred places, and generous contributors to restoration funds. When the tomb of Buddha was found on the Nepal frontier of India, and the stone coffin opened, the most precious relics were sent to the King of Siam in recognition of his leadership in the Buddhist world. These sacred relics were received with great ceremony and enshrined in the Wat Saket temple on a hill in the midst of Bangkok. Later, the King gave a portion of these ashes and bones of the body of the great teacher to the Buddhists of Japan, and a large party of priests, representing the different sects of that empire, went to Bangkok in great

NATIVES FORDING THE CANAL AFTER THE HUNT
The Siamese people take great enjoyment in the elephant round-up at Ayuthia

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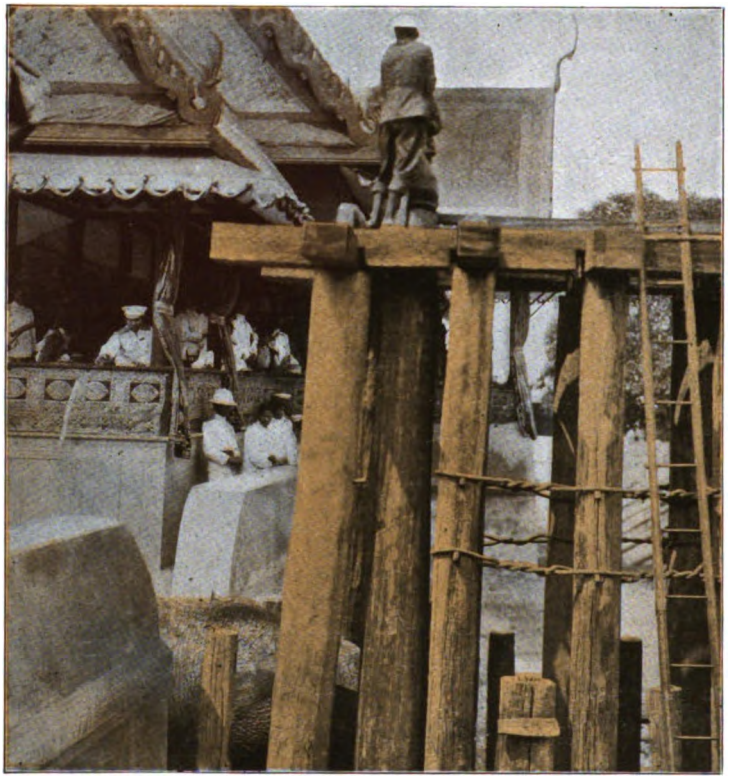

THE KING IN THE ROYAL BOX CHOOSING AN ELEPHANT
The animal's back is barely seen in the gateway

state and brought back the relics, which are kept in a specially-built temple in Nagoya.

With the King enjoying auto cars and auto-boats, in addition to his London-built carriages and tall horses from New South Wales, and the Queen's ladies-in-waiting using their bicycles as freely as women did in America a few years ago, the elephant is becoming an affair *de luxe* in the land where it has been most honored. The white elephant represents Siam, figures on the national flag, the naval ensign and the King's

IN MARCHING ARRAY

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standard, and holds his place of honor still in the palace enclosure. Four white elephants were idling at ease in the royal compound when I was there, all of them of a light gray tint, with faded, pinkish ears dotted with mammoth freckles. Although regarded with such reverence, as sacred creatures sharing in the holiness of the Buddha, with whom they are always associated, these white elephants have the same begging tricks as menagerie elephants. One was so vicious that he was chained by all four legs, all the time.

Another elephant was shown as probably the last to enjoy the great honors his kind have enjoyed for so many centuries. This rare albino of an elephant had been found in the Laos country of the far north five years previously, and was brought down the river to Bangkok with all the old state and pageantry. He had a royal barge and was everywhere attended by priests, and by the local populace in fleets of canoes. The faded, freckled creature was received at Bangkok by the King and the court with great ceremony. He wore trappings of velvet, gold and jewels, and the ceremonies of introduction to the palace compound occupied days. The traveled, cultivated King, a scholarly Buddhist, is believed to have ordered and taken part in these ceremonies as a concession to the people, and because of his unwillingness to break too abruptly with old custom. Scrupulous as all of the royalties are in religious observances, it is not believed that another holy one will be brought down to Bangkok in the twentieth century. Some way will be found to keep him with honor away from the modern capital.

While the teak forests remain — and with the present intelligent system of forest conservancy they will always be a source of revenue to the kingdom — the elephant is a utility that steam and electricity can not replace. His great strength and his intelligence find play in handling the teak logs in the marshy forest paths, and in the lumber yards his work is precise, automatic and almost untiring. American overhead machinery can hardly equal his exactness in piling the squared timbers, when trunk, tusk, shoulder and knee are all employed to lift and lay the boards exactly true. Nothing is more diverting than to watch "the elephants a-piling teak"; and as the huge, benevolent creatures go about their work, silently and methodically, just flapping an ear and winking their queer little eyes, the wonder grows.

If one asks who trains them, the answer is: "Themselves." The new arrival is sent into the lumber yards, or the mill, with a trained elephant. It trudges alongside and watches for a while, and then begins to lift, and lay, and push, gradually acquiring skill and experience. In the Maulmein yards we once watched a baby elephant capering beside its sagacious old mother, helping her now and then, picking up an easy stick itself to lay it straight, and then plainly frolicking like any young animal. It tossed chips, spouted sawdust and switched its little wisp of a tail, and then turned to and kept pace with the pendulum-like regularity of its benevolent mother.

Up in the teak country, down on the peninsula, and in general everywhere away from the railway, during the rainy season, the elephant remains the chief means of travel. They are captured wild in any jungle country, and the supply seems always equal to the demand. All new elephants are the property of the King, to be disposed of officially whenever caught. Their value now is from 6,000 to 7,000 *ticals* or $2,000 to $2,500 gold.

At one time, while walking the jungle paths to the ruined temples at Ayuthia, the Siamese officer who was leading the way, casually remarked that there had been a couple of wild elephants by the temple tank the preceding week. The natives had been greatly frightened and had kept away from the neighborhood while the big game was on the rampage, as a man on foot in a narrow path has small chance against an angry elephant. All that the officer could say did not quiet our alarm, and we saw elephants behind every bush and ruined wall, trunks darting out from every leafy screen. Even the shoulder of the colossal bronze Buddha was alarming from a little distance. Dearly as he loves the elephant, the Siamese knows enough to fear the great national insignia when it is on free feet. Every time the King holds a great hunt or drive of elephants at Ayuthia, there are sure to be fights between wild

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elephants that give the Siamese audience thrill enough to last for a year, until the next grand hunt comes off.

The wild elephant is a sorry-looking animal, lean and bony, his skin coarse, weather-worn and fungus-covered. Tusks and tail show the wear and tear of many jungle fights. He is nervous, too, when first brought in the range of human society to feel the burden of the brown man on the back of his neck and the prick of his barbed goad. Only the companionship of tame elephants can soothe or guide him. Food and rest, many baths in the river, scrubbing with coarse palm brushes, and abundant oilings have the effect of a beauty parlor on his appearance, and his rounded form, smooth skin and gentle eye soon proclaim him a changed beast, a tamed and civilized elephant fit to carry a howdah on his back, and drag logs or heavy artillery caissons.

A traveling elephant is chosen for his smooth and even gait, but for speed he is only equal to doing twenty miles of traveling on exceptional days, fifteen miles being his steady gait. The elephant is in all affairs *de luxe* in any event, and is cared for and spared as carefully as a blooded horse. The elephants that went to the Indian durbar — the last great show of state elephants that the world will probably see — were many of them a year and longer on their way to Delhi, and the jeweled princes who were to ride them were only too thankful if these show animals reached the end of the journey alive.

Up at the King's kraal at Ayuthia, the beaters often drive in herds of two and three hundred wild elephants for the King's inspection and he chooses from them the animals worthy for his stable, or to be sold. The best ones are led away, and the rest are turned loose to find their way back to their jungle haunts. This elephant round-up, which used to be an annual affair, is a festival occasion for all the country side, and the King and court occupy a great grand-stand overlooking the walled and stockaded kraal, into which the jungle folk are decoyed by sagacious old tame elephants. Even these huge animals have nerves, and they get on edge when the gaunt, razor-backed jungle beasts find themselves shut fast in a pen of teak logs. They trumpet and scream and beat their own foreheads with their trunks, and when the ponderous portcullis is lifted to let them pass inspection, one by one, two try to go through at once with fatal results to the weaker and smaller.

Those chosen for the survey and engine corps of the army, the forestry and mining departments, are taught their duties by tame elephants. The elephant's imitative faculty is strong, and in a new environment, with food and baths, careful oiling and grooming, he soon becomes a useful member of the industrial body. These big vegetarians live on hay, grain, green fodder, bananas and rice, and to keep in good condition must have frequent baths. The keepers scrub them with the husks of kitul palm, or with brushes as coarse and stiff as street brooms; and as black toes are great points of beauty and highly desirable, the beasts get manicure attentions for their twenty nails with a stout shoe brush.

Even in the teak forests, the elephant without a tail is without honor or regard, and when the wild elephants charge from the exit of the kraal and gore the first animal in sight, the keeper's greatest anxiety is lest one combatant take a turn of his trunk around the miserable little tail of his opponent and wrench it off. In all the pictures of the herd of wild elephants, one will notice how dejected are the tailless ones, for even a pachyderm has personal vanity!

Ayuthia, once a splendid capital, has been abandoned since its capture and destruction by the Burmese in 1767, and the jungle has long hidden the ruins of the great temples that are still so imposing. The King has a modern palace of unostentatious character there, from whose tower one gets a bird's-eye view of the site of the ancient city, with groups of pagodas showing above all the jungle levels. The real summer residence is now at Bang-pa-in, further down the river, a grand trianon of an affair whose many small buildings, pavilions and villas are built in modern, European style, but cleverly adapted to tropical living. The whole place is beautifully kept, and the taste shown in decoration and furnishings, and the spotless order and neatness are in startling contrast to the shabby, untidy half-palaces and half-slums in which Indian princes house themselves.

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TAMING THE MISSISSIPPI

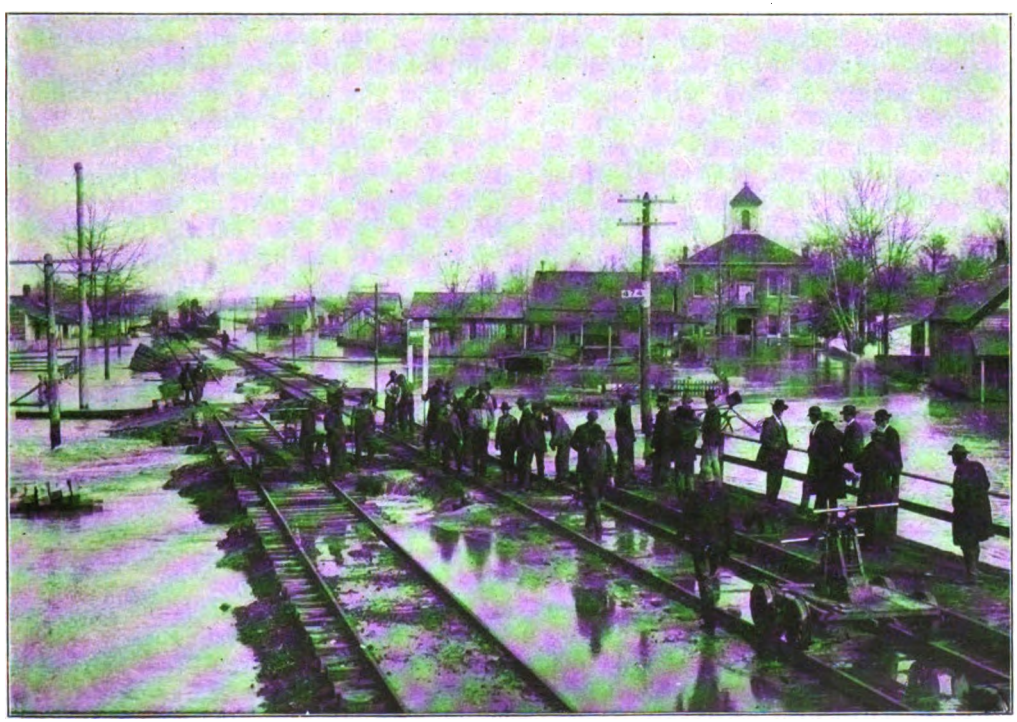
WHAT THE GOVERNMENT IS DOING TO KEEP THE FATHER OF WATERS WITHIN BOUNDS AT THE ST. FRANCIS BASIN

BY

JOHN LEISK TAIT

STRETCHING over two hundred miles from north to south, and averaging about twenty-eight miles in width, embracing upward of three thousand five hundred square miles of the finest alluvial soil on earth, the St. Francis Basin includes that portion of the eastern sections of Missouri and Arkansas lying between Crowley's Ridge and the Mississippi River. Winding sluggishly along the foot of the ridge at the extreme west of the basin, like a sleepy reptile of the cypress swamps whence its waters are drawn, flows, and alternately stagnates, the St. Francis River.

The St. Francis Basin is a tract incredibly rich in natural resources, incredibly retarded in development by the surfeit of waters which gather upon its surface partly through annual rainfall and partly because of the overflowing of the Mississippi River. These, lacking adequate drainage, gather in pools and stagnate in slimy bayous, affording shelter for the coot and the bittern and a dwelling place



JUST AFTER THE LEVEE BROKE

Looking west along the Frisco railroad track at Marion, Ark.

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for all wild creatures that seek the silences and dampness of the cypress brake. At least this was the condition of the basin. It is a condition which is rapidly passing away, thanks to the levee system which is being pushed to completion and which already affords an effectual bar to further encroachments on the part of the Father of Waters.

There are, as a matter of fact, two St. Francis levee systems, an upper and a lower. It is with the latter only that this present article will deal. It begins at a point about fourteen miles above Caruthersville, Missouri, and ends where the St. Francis pours its reluctant current into the Mississippi at Helena, Arkansas. The distance is approximately 235 miles, following the meanderings of the Mississippi.

The soil is of the richest alluvium, the deposit of untold ages, the tribute of the lands lying along the upper courses of the Mississippi and Missouri Rivers. Every annual overflow brought a fresh layer of silt. Every receding flood left its stratum of fertile soil.

Such a soil, so amply watered, could not be other than productive. Giant forests clothed it like a garment. Forests of oak and gum and hickory clung along the high places; brakes of cypress trees, huge of girth, mighty of limb, with curious, projecting "knees" clustered about the pools. Within the marshes themselves grew dense canebrakes. The course of the very streams was stayed by rank growth of water grasses and luxuriant weeds. The whole land bore God's sign manual of fecundity.

So it was when the earliest settlers, lured by abundance of wild game, deer, wild turkeys and prowling bears, and by the wonderful fertility of its damp soil, penetrated tentatively into its gloomy recesses and built their primitive cabins. So it has continued, to large extent, even to this day; although it is now checkered with clearings, showing where the sawmill and the planter have been at work, threaded with intersecting lines of railway and dotted with comfortable dwellings. Moreover, the foundation has already been laid behind the huge system of dykes which stay the waters of the Mississippi, for an effectual drainage system. Parallel canals with intersecting ditches gridiron the upper portion of the basin. The task of dredging and straightening the lower channel of the St. Francis River, the natural means of egress for the storm waters of the basin, is projected.

The Levee System

The exact length of the levee is now 207 miles. This, however, is always more or less subject to change, for the reason that the caving banks of the Mississippi River now and then render it necessary to build a "loop" behind the present line of the levee to protect the subjacent lands in the event of the outer levee line being washed into the burrowing stream. The St. Francis levee has an average cross section sixteen feet high with a base of 104 feet and a crown eight feet wide, topped by a curving section one and a half feet high with a three-foot crown. The levee of course varies in dimensions according to the level of the location upon which it is built. The maximum height in the St. Francis district is thirty-five feet. This has a base of 308 feet, including the banquette built behind it, on the landward side, as a support. Such a banquette, with a base of twenty feet and a height of eight feet less than the main section of the levee, will eventually be built behind all levees exceeding ten feet in height. It has as yet been built only in the more exposed places.

"This," says H. N. Pharr, Chief Engineer of the St. Francis Levee Board, "is in brief what we have on the ground at this time. It is not what the St. Francis levee board is aiming at ultimately. It is not without defects as it stands. To particularize: It will require the expenditure of approximately $500,000 to put the present levee in first-class repair. I mean by that, to make it of standard dimensions according to the present level, strengthening the weak places until it will form a perfect protection against a flood of the height which will be withstood by the present average section of the levee; that is, a Mississippi River stage of fifty-two feet upon the gauge at Cairo or forty-two and one-half feet upon the gauge at Memphis. It will cost approximately $500,000 more to place the banquette wherever it is to be placed along the line. But when that is done the levee will average three feet below the ultimate level which we are seeking to establish. To

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IN A TIME OF EXTREME HIGH WATER
Negroes seeking refuge upon the levee

build that additional three feet will mean adding a huge slice of earth to the levee, a slice approximately fifty feet wide by six feet thick along the whole length of the levee, sloping out at the base until it will add eighteen feet to the present average base of the levee. To do this will cost about $1,500,000 more. So that you might say that to bring the St. Francis levee to the ideal proportions and condition will require about $2,500,000 more. It will take several years to do the work."

It has taken several years to do what has already been accomplished. It began away back in 1850, with the passage by Congress of the Swamp Lands Act, by virtue of which the low lands of the St. Francis Basin, and elsewhere, were ceded to the several states for levee and drainage uses. The State of Arkansas and the State of Missouri immediately organized boards of swamp-land commissioners, who set seriously about the task of building up an effective levee along the Mississippi River frontage of the lower St. Francis Basin. And it has required the outlay of approximately $2,458,000 on the part of the people of the St. Francis levee district. To this must be added $1,706,927 contributed by the federal government through the Mississippi River Commission of the War Department. This money has been expended by the commission under the direct supervision of a captain of the corps of engineers, whose headquarters are in Memphis, Tennessee, and who acts in conjunction with the chief engineer of the St. Francis levee board.

What the Levee Has Accomplished

It is worth while, in passing, to note the increase of the property valuation in the district, which has been brought about by the erection of the levee. Time was, not so very long ago, when land in the levee district could be bought anywhere from twenty-five cents to five dollars per acre. Indeed thousands of acres of it, bought by speculators, were sold for the trifling levee taxes accumulated upon it in the course of a few years at even less than the figures given. To-day it is impossible to find any land at all desirable within the levee's encircling arm for less

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than the maximum figure named, and very little at that. Much of it can not be bought at any price. Much of it can not be had for less than $50 to $100 per acre. And there is excellent reason for the fact.

This increase was due to four causes: the opening up of additional wild land to cultivation, the development of the timber resources of the district, the building of additional railways and the ripening of values of lands already under cultiva-

HIGH WATER BEFORE THE LEVEE WAS COMPLETED

Land accessible to the railway and producing a bale and a half to two bales of cotton to the acre, land in which it is necessary only to drop seed-corn in a hole in the loam, made by a pointed stick, to secure seventy-five bushels of corn to the acre almost without cultivation, land which will grow incredible crops of hay and fruits of all descriptions is "worth the money." Some recent statistics are eloquent in support of this.

The assessed valuation for state and county taxes of the real estate within this levee district for 1893, when the movement for building the levee began to assume practical shape, was $4,247,759; while in 1905, with the levee somewhat more than half built, it was $11,914,824, an increase of $7,667,345 or 181 per cent.

tion. But back of all these, and responsible for them all, was the levee.

The present organization for building and maintaining the St. Francis levee was effected in 1893. Prior to that time the swamp lands commission of the two states had made some effort to stay the overflow of the big stream. But they lacked means. They had, however, incorporated the fragmentary dykes which individual planters had already constructed, into a heterogeneous, crazy-quilt sort of levee line, low in elevation, narrow in crown and often very defective in construction. This system, while it was no protection against the great flood heights, served effectually during most of the year along the higher bottom lands. Its length was only about twenty-five miles.

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This was the condition of things when the disastrous flood of 1858 swept over the St. Francis bottoms, washing countless gaps in the dyke and wreaking devastation upon the lowland plantations. The following year the blow was repeated and before the people of the district had in any measure recovered from this double calamity the war of 1861-5 was upon the land and the interests of the levees were submerged in the tide of national suffering which ensued.

It was not until 1893 that the levee again received the serious and compelling attention of the people to whom its completion has meant so much. The two independent boards which still manage the affairs of the St. Francis levee district, the one for the Missouri counties and the other for the Arkansas counties, were organized and went to work. The Arkansas board appropriated $750,000 for the work, issuing bonds to that amount. The Missouri board furnished its proportion, and the work began in dead earnest. Four years later, however, came an exceptionally high flood, overtopping the partially finished dykes and washing many gaps in them. It is worthy of note that these gaps were invariably found in the old levee that had been built before the work was taken in charge by scientific engineers.

SITE OF PROJECTED LEVEE WITH GROUND CLEARED OF ALL LOGS AND STUMPS

When the flood of 1897 subsided and the extent of the damage wrought was seen, there arose a mighty cry from those who had opposed the construction of the levee. It was asserted that it was undertaking an impossibility to attempt to make a levee that would protect the district from any possible flood, and there were not lacking those who honestly believed that the construction of the levee meant the absolute ruin of all the lands which lay behind it. Notwithstanding this opposition, however, new surveys were run by the board, and the work of reconstruction began. The United States government came to the rescue with liberal appropriations.

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The work of building the levee was carried on without further disaster of note until the spring of 1903, when a break occurred at Random Shot, forty-six miles above Memphis, and another at Hollybush, fourteen miles above Memphis. These were repaired without extensive loss, and two years later the line was completed to Helena, covering the entire Mississippi River frontage. It remains now only to fortify and enlarge the levee already placed, and this is being done as rapidly as possible.

Scientific Levee Building

The modus operandi of levee building is nowhere more scientifically correct than in the St. Francis levee district. In the early days of levee building it was thought that any pile of dirt approximately so high and so wide and running approximately parallel with the river was good enough. The delusion cost thousands of dollars. To-day the site of the projected levee is carefully cleared of all trees, the very roots being grubbed out, because these would decay, otherwise, and leave channels through the soil under the dyke through which sipe water would quickly undermine the structure. Down the center of the cleared site a trench, called technically a muck ditch, is dug, and in this puddled clay or "buckshot" is filled. Upon this the earth, dug from borrow pits adjacent to the levee on the landward side, is placed. It is not dumped helter-skelter, but carefully spread in layers, giving the finished mound the maximum strength and solidity. These layers extend both laterally and longitudinally across the levee, binding it in every direction.

The work of placing the dirt is done principally by means of wheel-scrapers, operated by mules. Under some circumstances small flatcars are used, propelled by a locomotive and bringing the earth from a greater distance. This is not often done except when continued rains have made the ground too soft for successful work with the teams.

Guarding the Dike

One of the most important items in the maintenance of the levee is the high-water fight which must be waged by the levee board as often as the river reaches a stage which threatens the integrity of the dike. This is done with all the system and precision of an army engaging a foe in the field. The levee is divided into beats, and watchmen are kept busy patrolling it day and night. A long-distance telephone service keeps the chief

REPAIRING THE LEVEE WITH SANDBAGS

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THE CARS USED IN LEVEE CONSTRUCTION

engineer at his office in constant touch with every mile of the levee. Steamboats are chartered, bags are procured, boats are caulked and painted, shovels and axes and handspikes are put in readiness at the several warehouses of the board stationed at intervals along the line of the levee; and a host of men are engaged for instant service upon call by day or by night. These men are largely mill operatives and farm hands, whose employers engage to turn them over to the board in case danger threatens the dyke which protects them and their business. Let the water creep close to the top of the levee at any point, the watchman telephones the news to the chief engineer and within ten minutes' time a small army is heading toward the threatened point, while steamboats bringing supplies for their subsistence, and materials and tools for their work, plow the surging waters under full steam.

The money required for levee building comes from two sources. Part of it is raised by a betterment tax upon the land protected by the levee. Part of it comes out of the appropriations made by the national Congress for river improvement. The finances of the board are in good shape, and nothing short of an earthquake or a flood of unprecedented height and duration can interfere materially with the plans which have been laid for the enlargement of the dykes to the ideal proportions. This will be the work of several years.

In the meantime, however, real estate values are swiftly climbing throughout the basin. New plantations are being opened. New industries are being established. New settlers by the thousand are flocking in to make themselves homes. And another work, second in importance only to that of the building of the levee, is already well under way.

This is the work of draining the land protected by the levee, of straightening and deepening the channel of the St. Francis River and of constructing lateral canals with intersecting ditches to carry into the river the sipe and storm water. This is in the hands of another organization, the St. Francis River Improvement Association, whose efforts have the sympathy and faithful coöperation of the

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members of the levee board, many of whom, indeed, belong to it.

Holland cherishes the project of reclaiming the land underlying the Zuyder Zee, a tract of approximately one hundred and forty thousand acres, or about two hundred and twenty square miles, at an estimated cost of $39,583,000. England has reclaimed a portion of the Valley of the Nile, about one million six hundred thousand acres, or two thousand five hundred square miles, by building concrete dams at Assouan at an expense of $25,000,000. The wonderful value of the St. Francis levee will be understood when it is known that it will reclaim two million two hundred and forty thousand acres, or three thousand five hundred square miles, at a final approximate cost of only $6,930,000.

SHAPING THE FUTURE OF THE INDIAN

BY

FORBES LINDSAY

OUR past treatment of the Indians seems to have been based upon the idea that they were neither amenable to civilization nor assimilable by the population of the country. We herded them upon reservations that were secluded from the outer world, cut off their accustomed industries and activities, closed every field of endeavor and, in fact, suppressed even the fundamental instinct of self-preservation, which is the master motive of the human mind. The old reservation policy afforded the Indian no opportunity for usefulness. He was restricted to eating his rations and loafing. Naturally active, his only relief from the ennui of a monotonous and enervating life was found in degrading dances and ceremonies. It happened in cases that the government was impelled to find some occupation for a band that displayed symptoms of unrest, but the object was merely to keep them out of mischief and no thought of training them to labor and a civilized method of living was ever entertained. But with sufficient food, enforced abstinence from liquor and hygienic surroundings, the Indians ceased to diminish and to-day we have two hundred and eighty thousand of them upon our hands, who display a tendency to increase in numbers.

With the spread of our people through the southwestern country, which is still spoken of as "the frontier," covetous eyes began to be cast upon the reservations, many of which embraced valuable lands occupied solely by scattered tepees. In response to persistent clamor the government began to open up the Indian country to white settlers and its former occupants were for the first time disturbed in their long-continued lethargy. The breaking up of the reservations began in the early nineties, but the movement has proceeded so rapidly in recent years that its completion is probable within the next decade.

The Indians are provided for individually in the distribution of the lands which they formerly held on the communal system. The general allotment act in its present form ensures to each Indian allottee eighty acres of farming land or one hundred and sixty acres of grazing ground. These provisions were designed in a spirit of liberality, but having been made without any consideration for the varying conditions in different sections, they commonly operate to give the Indian either more land than he can possibly utilize, or less than enough to afford him a comfortable living. Very few of the beneficiaries are supporting themselves by working their holdings and in a large proportion of cases, lack of capital and natural conditions preclude the possibility of their doing so.

It is only within the last few years —

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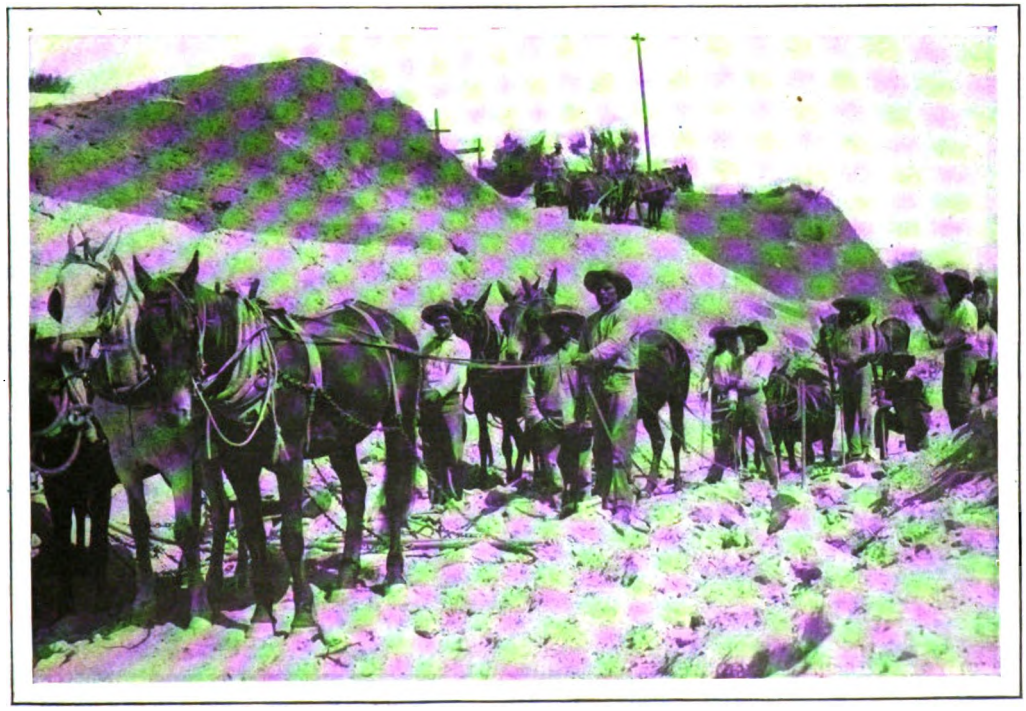
more especially within the past two — that the opening of the reservations has wrought any considerable change in the Indian's condition. He continued to receive his rations and lived in much the same way as of old, only in a comparatively few instances improving his property. With the entrance of the present Indian Commissioner, Mr. Francis E. Leupp, upon office, a radically different policy was incepted. This new movement aims at the substitution of independence and freedom for segregation and charity. Every inducement is being offered to the able-bodied Indian to go out into the world and seek work side by side with the white man and in free competition with him. It is the policy of labor and citizenship as against the policy of rations and nonentity. We are giving the redskin the white man's chance and asking him to assume the white man's responsibilities. It is a bold experiment, fraught with many dangers and difficulties for us and for our wards. No one can be more keenly alive to these than the Commissioner, but he has entered upon the enterprise with a confidence and enthusiasm that deserve success.

The best friends of the Indian admit and the government fully recognizes the fact that he is quite incapable of taking care of himself at present, so that, while endeavoring to make him self-supporting, we are still keeping him in leading strings. His allotment of land and his citizenship are conferred upon him with necessary, though somewhat anomalous, restrictions. The land of each allottee is held in trust by the government for ten years at least and in other respects the adult citizen is treated as a legal minor. The difficulties in the way of the pursuit of the new policy are not only numerous but in many cases highly complex. In the main they are common to all Indians, but every tribe presents problems of a peculiar character.

At the outset we have to contend with the racial dislike of the Indian to manual labor and the ill effects of the reservation system, which encouraged laziness and perpetuated the ancient communal ideas and customs. Then the home-keeping instinct is exceedingly strong in the Indian. He will rather abide in a familiar locality under unfavorable circumstances than improve his condition by moving into



PUTTING THE INDIAN'S HORSEMANSHIP TO NEW TASKS

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strange environment. Regular and sustained labor is entirely foreign to his habit and experience. He has been accustomed to work or play as the inclination moved him and it is no small matter to train him to pick up a shovel at the sound of a whistle and to wield it until relieved by a similar signal.

The Indian has the crudeness and the shortcomings of the primitive man. Naturally enough he lacks the sense of responsibility, has no thought for tomorrow, nor any ambition to better himself. These would appear to be almost insuperable deterrents to the success of our new policy of standing the Indian upon his feet and teaching him to walk alone. But the one year of experiment in this direction which has just closed seems to hold out hope of the ultimate accomplishment of the object.

The chief difficulty is found with the full-blood adults who have never been brought within the influence of our educational agencies. They have little in common with the Caucasian, whom they cordially dislike and completely distrust. Their temperamental abhorrence of change and novelty is as great as their attachment to the customs and mode of living of their forefathers, sentiments which the reservation system tended to confirm rather than to abate or modify. Where these *pukha* Indians take up allotments, one will find houses built as a concession to self-respect and a token of equality with the white neighbor, but the owner will be found living in a tepee in his back yard. These aborigines can not fail to be a retarding factor in the civilizing movement and its success might, no doubt, have been furthered by their exclusion from it, but the government is disposed to give greater weight to the humanitarian than to the utilitarian consideration, and wisely encourages the continuance of the family ties while endeavoring to destroy the communal bonds.

One of the weakest features of the present policy is that while we may forcibly initiate it, we can not carry it out against the will of the subject, and in the last resort the Indian who will not avail himself of the opportunities held out to him must remain a burden upon our hands and a spoke in the wheel of progress. If he refuses to make an effort toward his own sustenance or if he impoverishes himself, we must see to it that he does not suffer from cold and hunger. This duty, like that of keeping liquor beyond his reach, is imposed upon us indefinitely by the treaty obligations incurred in the acquisition of the Indian lands.

The case of the White River Utes, now awaiting the attention of the President, illustrates this point. This band has stubbornly opposed the opening of the Uintah Reservation since the step was authorized by law two years ago. When the act was put into effect last spring, despite their protests, they declined to move upon their respective allotments and, as soon as the hunting season opened, set out with all their possessions to join the Sioux in South Dakota. In the course of this migratory movement, before they were rounded up by the troops, the misguided Utes disposed of practically all their movable property. At present they are virtually paupers while actually owners of valuable real estate. They positively refuse to take up their land and that solely because of a determination not to be brought into contact with the white man. If they persist in this attitude from which the Great Father has already tried without success to shake them, nothing can be done but to allow them to have their own way and to establish them in a new reservation on the old basis and apply the proceeds of the lease of their lands to their support.

And that brings us to the question whether it might not have been better to have restricted the application of the new policy to such Indians as could be educated to see the advantages to them in it and to acquiesce in the opening of their reservations to white settlers. It is reasonable to believe that in time the contemplation of the prosperity of these enterprising bands would stimulate others to follow their example. In this manner the movement would be carried out, if with less celerity, also with less friction. Such procedure would of course encounter the active opposition of the interests that are impatient of the Indian's exclusive tenancy of large tracts of land.

Since the admission of white settlers to the reservations, an organized liquor traffic has been carried on in defiance of

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THE INDIAN AS HE WAS

"Fat Hen," one of Geronimo's favorite warriors, is now working on the Salt River project of the Reclamation Service.

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NO BETTER LABORERS THAN THE APACHES CAN BE FOUND

the laws prohibiting the taking of intoxicants into the Indian country. The new conditions render the strict enforcement of these laws extremely difficult, if not impossible. Furthermore, the question of their constitutionality as applied to emancipated Indians has been called into question and the judicial decisions have been such as to give encouragement to the liquor dealers. In what is known as the "Heff Case," the Supreme Court of the United States rendered a decision containing the following statement:

> We are of the opinion that when the United States grants the privileges of citizenship to an Indian, gives to him the benefits of and requires him to be subject to the laws, both civil and criminal, of the state, it places him outside the reach of police regulations on the part of Congress; that the emancipation from Federal control thus created cannot be set aside at the instance of the government without the consent of the individual Indian and the state.

This broad and sweeping decision declares a portion of the act of January 30, 1897 (29 Stat. L. 506), designed for the protection of the Indian, to be unconstitutional and shakes the validity of the entire statute. It establishes the principle that even though — and this is not beyond question — the legal prohibition against the introduction of liquor to the "Indian country" is applicable to such sections of that country as may have passed into the hands of whites, the law against selling liquor to Indians will not hold when the transaction takes place outside the boundaries of the old reservation.

The Supreme Court says in effect that if we are to emancipate the Indian we must let him take his chance in this matter like any other man. This would appear to be the logical stand, but it is the most regrettable outcome of the policy of independence. Of the many dangers that menace the Indian in the all too difficult path that has been opened up to him this is the most serious. It is the conviction of those who have had long experience with Indians, that they can not safely touch alcohol. It crazes them and causes much greater physical deterioration than in the case of the white man,

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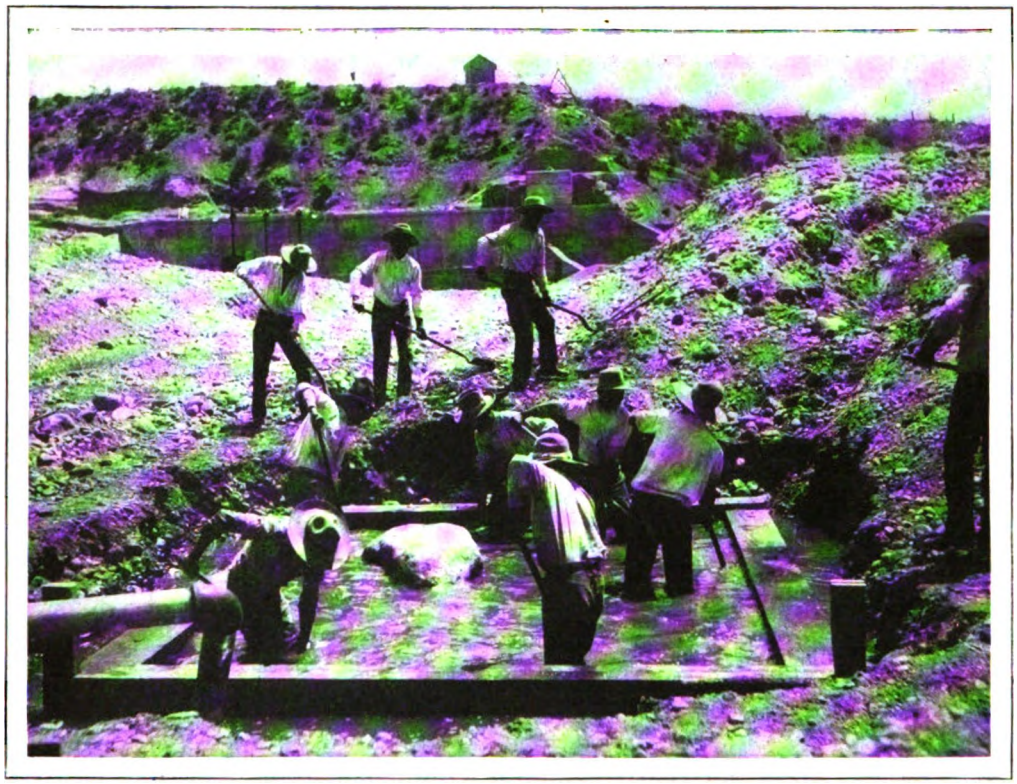

DIFFICULT AND ARDUOUS RECLAMATION WORK IS DONE BY INDIANS

who enjoys a partial immunity to the poison derived from a long succession of liquor-drinking ancestors. But the Indian will drink when opportunity offers, and his readiness to pay any price for whisky furnishes the chief incentive for the illicit liquor traffic.

We may educate the rising generation, or a large proportion of it, to abstinence, but it is our duty to protect the adult against himself in so far as that is possible. Our old obligation in this respect is enhanced by the responsibility arising from the opening of the reservations. Congress appears to entertain this view, and the present body, which has originated more legislation of vital importance to the Indian than any of its predecessors, has furnished the Indian Commissioner with a special fund for the purpose of suppressing the liquor ring and prosecuting violators of the liquor laws.

It is clear that while the abolition of the ration policy and the establishment of the independent labor policy are to be desired, the government can not safely abate its control of the Indian in the matters of freedom of movement and the use of liquor. If the concession of citizenship is to entail the cessation, or any considerable diminution of government regulation in these respects, or either of them, then the opening of the reservations is premature by a generation.

It is upon the comparatively plastic material of the youth who come within our educational influences that we must depend for the molding of the Indian of the future. There are about forty thousand Indian children of school age, and it is hoped that they may be so trained as to leaven powerfully the whole. In conformity with the general plan the school system has been modified and is now regulated upon the most practical lines. The primary object is to produce capable frontiersmen and their helpmates. The girls are taught the domestic arts before everything. The boys learn reading, writing and simple arithmetic, but for the rest the effort is directed to making farmers, smiths, or wheelwrights of them.

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This is cultivating the weakest side of the Indian, whose most pronounced deficiency is that of the practical sense. During the period of schooling every opportunity for enjoying profitable experience is extended to the youths. Two cases may be cited as typical of the gratifying results that have been secured.

A bridge was needed to span a creek in Snohomish County, Washington, and the officials estimated the cost of it at $3,000. They were induced to allow the boys of the Tulalip School to undertake the work. It was completed by the youngsters quite satisfactorily and at a cost of $650.

During six weeks of last summer, forty-nine schoolboys and three adults worked in the Colorado beet fields, earning $1,672 over and above all expenses. The lads have put their money into sheep, which their relatives will look after while they are attending school.

Such experiences — and they have not been few in number — point to the conclusion that the key to the problem is to be found in the schools and would seem to justify the theory of education supported by the Indian Commissioner. At the same time they tend to strengthen the suspicion that it had been better for the Indian and for ourselves to have allowed more extended effect to the educational agency before emancipating the adults.

However, the efforts of the Indian Office to induct the young able-bodied redskins to the field of labor have been crowned with remarkable success during the past year. Two thousand or more young men under agents of their own race were employed upon irrigation works, in mines, and on railroad construction. Their transportation home was made conditional on the performance of at least thirty days' consecutive labor. The fulfillment of this requirement taxed the Indian's staying powers severely, but hundreds of them have at the present time been steadily at work for six months or more. Every employer speaks highly of them and is well satisfied to pay them the wages of white men.

The Indian, provided he develops in the right direction, should make an ideal day-laborer. He has a fine physique, is a total abstainer from liquor, cheery, tractable and conscientious. The great difficulty is to overcome in the first place his disinclination to work and then to persuade him, after having provided for to-morrow, to earn something for the needs of the next day. Secure his pledge to perform a task and he will make good his word with an admirable display of grit and honesty.

It must be understood that the men thus employed are the pick of the reservation Indians and a large proportion of them have felt the influence of our educational agencies. The most that can be achieved with the full-blood past middle age is to induce him to till a small section of his own land or to work in a desultory manner on an irrigation project within his reservation. Various tribes, again, display differing degrees of capacity. The Zunis, whose ancestors wrung a scanty living from a niggard soil, are underfed and dispirited, while no better laborer than the Apache can be found. Some of the most difficult and arduous of the reclamation work has been performed by the Apaches, and the Salt River project affords the significant spectacle of the survivors of Geronimo's band working to render their old home a pleasant place for the white man to live in.

The release of the redskin from his long seclusion and his introduction to civilization bring the ultimate solution of the "Indian problem" definitely into view. Our red brother has been launched upon a current which must inevitably carry him to extinction by the process of absorption in the population of that section of our country which is his natural home. He is undoubtedly destined to make his mark on the community that shall furnish the field for his future activities, for the Indian is a man of strong fiber and exceptional individuality, with inherent qualities of a very high order. The effects of intermarriages of the two races are to be seen in the numerous half-breeds, many of them bright, energetic, practical men, holding prominent positions in finance, commerce and the professions.

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Running to a fire

MIEDEMA, SCULPTOR TO THE DUTCH PEOPLE

BY

WILLIAM ELLIOT GRIFFIS

AUTHOR OF "BRAVE LITTLE HOLLAND," "THE PILGRIMS IN THEIR THREE HOMES," ETC.

ROTTERDAM, the second largest Dutch city and the seventh shipping port in the world, hardly receives justice at the hands of American tourists, who make of it, what the Pilgrim Fathers did, simply a terminal facility. Yet to one who can see through the windows of Netherlands history, it is one of the most fascinating of cities. Here in 1549 the streets once rang with acclaim to the Father of His Country. It was when the Cathedral of Saint Lawrence had seventeen blazing altars, and the *Pater Patriae* was Phillip II. of Spain. Here on the page of the past lie some of the bloodiest spots of the eighty years' war of independence, marking Spanish perfidy and Dutch patriotism. One can still find the site of the House of a Thousand Fears, where by smearing a cat's blood on the lintels of the door a hundred souls enjoyed a life-giving passover. The murderous Spaniards, with swords already dripping red, moved on, thinking their job there had been already done for them. Then they encountered the gigantic blacksmith, Black John, with his mighty hammer. To-day you can ride to Swart Jan street and in the sculptor Miedema's studio you can see him in terra cotta.

Or if one would tread the vales of peaceful memory, let him take the "tram" to Delfshaven, once the port of Delft, but now swallowed up in Rotterdam. Here in the thirteenth-century church one will see the bronze tablet, rich in American and Dutch symbols, set up in grateful remembrance, September 29, 1906, in honor of the Pilgrim company's voyage in the Speedwell, begun July 22, 1623. Here in the city's heart is Erasmus in bronze, reading a bronze book. According to the tradition still told to babes,

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he turns a leaf when the hourly cathedral chimes make music in the air. In July, 1906, market stalls were cleared away and now he is surrounded with the glory of flowers in a fair garden. Not far away, on the place of execution where for centuries heads fell and bodies swung, are the purling fountain and the panoplied Kenau van Haselar who led her brave women against the Spaniards on the walls of Haarlem. In Boyman's museum, one can study the works of the many artist Rotterdamers: of the funny fellow, Saftleven, who made ducks, geese, pigs, and wolves look amazingly human; of Rochussen, who bade history bloom again on canvas; while in the churches, arresting by their chaste vigor and lovely in compelling pathos, one sees the master works of Miedema the sculptor. His more popular statuettes in shop and home show him doing as pleasing a household work as John Rodgers did among us Americans a generation ago.

OLD GRANNY, THE MUSSEL SELLER

With pepper, salt and vinegar at hand, she entices an eager group, who let business wait while they feast

Miedema, whose studio lies among the pretty gardens of Kralingen, one of the select old suburbs now absorbed in the city of four hundred thousand people, has been often invited to settle in Germany or in other places in the Netherlands, but, fond of his beloved Rotterdam, and honored by his many pupils and patrons, he prefers not to be lured away. He remains in his beloved city whose life he enjoys with the boy's delight, as Charles Dickens did in old but ever new London. Like the sage of Japanese proverb he "keeps a child's heart," or rather will keep it "until he is sixty," for he is still on the sunny side of hard work and creative power.

During this past year, when all the Netherlands were celebrating the tercentenary of their greatest painter, Miedema had ready in good season a bust of the great Rembrandt. Reproduced in several styles: in plain dark tint for the man who could spare but a few stuyvers, in terra cotta, in black and gilt, in form and finish to suit all purses — all of them

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gave the impression of that rugged strength which was the mark of Rembrandt's physique as well as genius. Miedema chose the real painter at work, with studio cap and long hair over his shoulders, which was also the type seen on the Leyden bust unveiled before the Dowager Queen Emma, the Prince Consort, and a grand array of artists at Leyden, July 14, 1906. The photograph of the sculptor shows his face on its left side and as we saw him in his studio during the past summer.

Miedema remembers Rotterdam before it possessed those splendid new steam fire-engines which with trained horses and men have steam up and water down on the fire within a very few minutes from the stroke of the alarm bell. But in the villages, and within the memory of men who are not yet old, in the municipality, the apparatus for fire-extinguishing consisted chiefly of the low, lumbering hand-engines, on the box or tank of which men stood to work long arms of wood or iron. They were able to pump a stream that a modern fire-fighter would laugh at. When the machine started, dogs and boys, as well as men in every style of headgear, were mightily interested. Lanterns carried in front on long poles warned people to get out of the way. If the shopkeeper's boy with basket on his back joined in, or the other fellow sent on an errand stumbled and lost the contents of his milk-pail, what odds? There were lots of fun for all around in these good old days, which still remain in country places. Occasionally, when two rival fire companies were racing, and determination to beat seemed more virtuous than even putting out the fire, the lively old machine tumbled into the canal. Holland's cities never lack material for extinguishing a blaze, but before the Dutch had dumped full their old canals and made of them wide streets *(gedempte)*, the old hand-engines were, with all their faults, admirably adapted to the narrow thoroughfares between house and canal. In mod-

GOING TO MARKET
What it means "to work like a dog"

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ern days the necessities of the fire department in the growing cities have furnished admirable arguments for "good roads" and wide avenues.

One never knows till he gets to the low countries what it means to "work like a dog." Whereas New York and other American state laws, as in England, prevent the use of the dog for horse-work, in the Netherlands he is still a beast, not of burden, but of traction. The motors of city carts and the smaller garden truck and milk wagons are almost invariably canine, from one to four animals being in harness. One often sees, in addition, a lazy lout distributing his weight between axle and dog back and adding hulk and bulk to already overloaded dogs. It is gay sport for the man, and many are the races along the clinker paths or brick-paved and tree-lined roads, but it is worse than hard on the brutes. I shall never

MIEDEMA—THE DUTCH SCULPTOR
A sculptor of the common lot

forget the collision between our hind carriage wheel and a dog cart, whereon an Enkhuisener was showing the possibilities of his pups. It was rounding a corner that caused the calamity which resulted in the loss of some paint to the carriage owner, a broken dog-cart shaft, and a vast amount of temper on the part of the men, with lots of swearing in Dutch, while the brutes took it quite calmly. Miedema has put in clay this phase of life on the road, when to the weight of hen-coop, melons, cabbages and carrots, is added one hundred and sixty pounds of boer. The whip bears signs of use on the big dog and his two lesser companions, whose tongues are out, showing how hard they are striving for the necessary supply of oxygen.

But no street life portrayed in clay could approach reality if it ignored the small boy and his equally funny companion, the small girl. No real boy in Holland, any more than in America, is happy unless he is making a noise. Our Hebrew friend, the peddler, in cap and long coat, is selling squawkers to the rising generation. They are elastic bladders which can be blown up with atmospheric air from the lungs. Then, when left free, they have vast capacity to desolate the air for yards around. Happy man to see a small boy coming with a *dubbeltje* (half dime) burning a hole in his pocket! Still happier is the boy to learn the secret of filling the bladder and making it a self-acting disturber of peace.

More histrionic and oratorical is the street peddler who sells a silvering solution that will turn, to the eye at least, common copper into argent splendor and the humblest coin into what looks like a guilder — keeping its polish perhaps as long as forty-eight hours. Bottle in hand and with banner upreared behind him, our modern Mercury descants eloquently on the virtues of his preparation. Of course it is the first of its kind ever known, and no other ever before heard of could approach his in power. Others might imitate but he creates. He leads where they follow, etc. Even the policeman gets interested in the fellow's oratory. The old woman almost believes that at least there is something new under the sun, while the young mother and her baby have forgotten for the nonce their needs and cares. Of course the small boy is there and so are the dogs. To the youngster on his way to market, even his basket is in oblivion. Holland was of old even more a land of peddlers than in the present day, for many things which in

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A MODERN MERCURY
Who promises great things for his silver-plating liquid

America might be sold by a pharmacist are not permitted in a Dutch drug store, where only the medicaments proper to an apothecary are on sale. Hence one must go for his patent medicines and nostrums, as well as for many things eatable and wearable, to the street-show, artist and peddler.

By day and by night the seller of sea food is on the street, well equipped to regale the passer-by and extract his coppers. Men must work but the women need not weep, for even old granny with a wheelbarrow, a lantern, pepper, salt, and vinegar, and possibly a chair and umbrella, is speedily made ready for trade. Has not a kindly but inscrutable Providence tempered every sort of food to the small boy's bottomless appetite? Lighting her lantern, she quickly attracts the man in the *klomps,* who stands in his timber foot-gear while getting nourishment that is sold cheaper than in the shops. As for the girl sent on an errand, the lady may wait for her bonnet, while the cares of millinery are forgotten in the joys of the palate. Even the respectable man must stop and take refreshment as he goes along. Alas for these degenerate days, when the authorities of the large cities and the rich and respectable folk will not allow the poor man any longer to have his kermess!

With all its miscellaneous shows, refreshments, privileges, humbugs, and nuisances, the former day abides joyfully in memory. In the smaller towns and villages, the merry-go-round, the fat woman, the giant, the wild man from the Celebes and always "Uncle Tom's Cabin" *(de Neger Hut)* hold their own, with every variety of whiffs and odors, sights and sounds, accompanied with varied, general and delightful uproar.

But while Miedema has an eye for the fun and enjoys putting in clay the phases of the street and humble life of his countrymen, his thoughts are bent upon the larger aspects and deeper problems of human existence. Very enjoyable to the man

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of taste and feeling are his works which adorn especially the Catholic churches in Rotterdam. Our limitations of space forbid us to speak of these in detail. We have room only to glance at some of his works in statuary and bas-relief, which show other aspects of Dutch life in clay.

THE PEDDLER OF SQUAWKING BLADDERS
His self-acting disturbers of the peace bring joy to the small boy

In his conception of history, he shows a shrouded female figure standing amid the shells and debris of extinct civilizations and the osseous ruins of men who were once mighty on earth, and whose names shook nations. Miedema believes that history is largely also biography. Hence besides the bones and skulls which suggest the inevitable past, there is the setting forth of the work of history in saving out of the ooze and dust of antiquity the story of human achievement. Wrought from the brain of man, it delights, when told, that brain which through the senses receives the inspiring product. The sculptor would intimate that the best history is inquiry, philosophy, and art, as well as selection, annals and narrative.

The modern cast of Miedema's mind is shown in that work in which he represents war in its true nature and aspect. Like other men of genius in our century, he sees that, despite the vast preparations for strife among many nations, notwithstanding that never before was so much mind devoted to the enginery of destruc-

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tion, the real forces of society are working, if not for the abolition of war, at least for its reduction to a place secondary in the thoughts and energies of the race. He does not forget the past, for he has made a remarkably effective picture, in very low relief, of a great Dutch naval victory.

But like his countryman Ten Kate, the artist Miedema pictures powerfully the reality of war. Man at the acme of his physical powers, enjoying the thrill and glow, yes, the rapture of the cavalry charge, is but the brute in imperfect humanity gloating over legalized murder. Madly the rider charges over babes and mothers while making widows and orphans. In vain the indignant defender would strive to arrest him. Superior brute force, with power to overcome, because of superiority of cunning and skill in murder! Can civilized man abide this, when the tribunals of reason are open?

In the land of world-renowned Boerhave, Miedema pictures medical science incarnated as a bearded scholar studying that crown of the visible creation, the skull which enclosed the brain of man. In the world outside of science, the world of emotion and feeling, Miedema represents with insight and power an inevitable figure which with Greek letters he entitles "In the Shadow of Death." Over the sick child, the mother yearns, pines and prays in vain. Her tender ministry is for naught, for inexorable death holds her offspring.

Perhaps the sculptor's strength is seen at its climax in "Philo Niké or Love of Victory." Is it not true that all wars, despite pleas of patriotism and honor, and pretexts both multifarious and sublime, are but the damnable offspring of human lust? Has ever philosopher, sage, or orator put his finger more unerringly on the real cause than James the apostle? Enemies of God are, all of them, lovers of war as such. Peacemakers are the children of the Eternal Father. All wars spring from selfishness, brute instincts, covetousness, or desire to possess what is not rightfully one's own. Yet the devilishness of war does not appear to the young man who is asked to enlist. The possible victim of shrapnel — or typhoid — is talked to about "honor," "glory," "patriotism." Noble words cover up Satanic motives. So, rightly, does Miedema put the ravishing female figure in view, with every curve and feature prominent that charms man. Lovely indeed are her limbs and features. She wields a sword that would be put into the hands of the entranced youth; but, behind her, see the real forms that push her on! The horned devils, black and sooty with talon-edged pinions, hold her up. One view of the clay shows how lust is always covered by grand pretexts, while another unmasks bat-winged Death standing on the crushed man.

Thus nobly, in the land of Rembrandt, does the sculptor reveal reality through the ministry of art.

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VICOMTE GEORGES D'AVENEL

THE LATEST FRENCH SAVANT TO LECTURE IN AMERICA

BY

ALVAN F. SANBORN

VICOMTE GEORGES D'AVENEL, this year's French lecturer at Harvard University, is unquestionably a learned historian, but he is not a learned historian of the conventional type. He cares relatively little for wars, conquests, treaties, conspiracies, rebellions, political and diplomatic intrigues which he has characterized as the "*faits divers*" — the "crimes and casualties"— of history. What appeals to him as a historian is the normal daily life of a people. Impressed very early in his career by the fact that the forces

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which really play the leading rôles in history (because most intimately associated with the private lives and the personal interests of men), had been studiously avoided by the historians as beneath their notice, he set to work bravely to repair this culpable neglect.

Dreaming of a history that should lay as much stress upon the acreage under cultivation during the reign of Francois I. as upon the vicissitudes of that monarch's conflict with Charles Quint, he did not take it out in dreaming. Daring to predict that the time would come when as many details would be known regarding the means and the methods of transportation in the Middle Ages as regarding the whims of the various mistresses of Louis XIV., he devoted himself to realizing his prophecy. Believing that an adequate comprehension of the past could only be brought about through an intimate union of political economy and history, he determined to unite them.

"The testimony of the experience of the centuries in economic and social matters," he said in an exposition of his theory of history, "deserves to be taken. .....The political and military history of France has been written, rewrittén even, and by masters.....The economic and financial history of our country is still to be written.....Up to the present, the historians, with a very few exceptions, have left political economy to one side and the economists have abstained from meddling with history. Hitherto our eyes have perceived in the past only the bark of things, the external modifications of kingdoms, the heads which rose above the level of the crowds, the facts which disturbed the ordinary course of life."

M. d'Avenel's "Histoire Economique de la Propriété, des Salaires, des Denrées, et de Tous Les Prix en Général, depuis l'An 1200 jusqu'a l'An 1800" ("Economic History of Property, Salaries, Commodities, and of Prices in General from the Year 1200 to the Year 1800"), which reminds one in some respects of Thorold Rogers's well-known "History of Agriculture and Prices in England," entitles him to a unique position among the historians of France. It has been characterized as "a social history" by Henry Houssaye, as "a history of material civilization" and as "sociology on the march through seven centuries" by Albert Sorel, and as "history applied to social economy" by Paul Descaanel.

It contains authentic and detailed information regarding real and personal property, taxes and methods of tax-collecting, systems of loans and of usury, labor of every sort, the relations of capital and labor, agriculture, retail and wholesale trade, and governmental and family budgets, all of which is based upon comparative tables of the cost and rent of land and of houses; of the cost of grain, meat, and all kinds of foodstuffs, drinks, horses, cattle, fodder, tissues, clothing, fuel, lights, metals, building materials, furniture, household utensils, art objects, traveling and transportation, etc.; and of the wages of the working people, and of the salaries and perquisites of the members of the liberal professions. Bear in mind that to make these tables intelligible it was necessary to translate into modern money and the metric system the innumerable coinages and systems of weights and measures of old France, which varied not only from generation to generation, but from province to province and even from canton to canton, and you will have some conception of the enormous amount of labor their compilation involved.

The most remarkable thing, however, about M. d'Avenel's great work is not its mass of facts, which might have been collected by any scholar possessed of a large amount of patience and perseverance, but the masterly manner in which he has blended these facts into an organic whole, thanks to a synthetic faculty far above the ordinary. Furthermore, he displays rare and commendable restraint in drawing from these facts tentative conclusions only, instead of attempting to formulate and promulgate absolute laws.

As Thorold Rogers made his "History of Agriculture and Prices" the basis of a more popular book entitled "Six Centuries of Work and Wages," so M. d'Avenel drew from his "Economic History" two volumes for general reading entitled respectively "La Fortune Privee à traverse Sept Siècles" ("Private Fortunes Through Seven Centuries") and "Paysans et Ouvriers depuis Sept Cents Ans" ("The Peasants and Labor-

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ers of the Last Seven Hundred Years"). He applied the results of his studies to contemporary conditions in a volume entitled "La Réform Administrative," and, during the year 1906, he contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* a series of articles entitled "Les Riches depuis Sept Cents Ans" ("The Rich during the Last Seven Hundred Years"), which will doubtless be republished sooner or later in book form, if it has not been already.

I have cited out of their chronological order M. d'Avenel's "Economic History," and the briefer works proceeding from it, because they embody perfectly his attitude and method. His four-volume study, "Richelieu et la Monarchie Absolue" ("Richelieu and the Absolute Monarchy"), which was crowned by the French Academy one year before the "Economic History" began to appear, prefigured the later work in that it revealed an ambition to extend the study of the past to economic, social, administrative, and financial questions. It was not a history, as that term is usually understood, of the reign of Louis XIII., nor of the ministry of Richelieu, but an exposition of the causes contributing to the establishment of the absolute monarchy in France and of the administrative system, financial, commercial, military, magisterial and religious, which it engendered in the provinces and communes as well as in Paris. Hence, it led Henry Houssaye to say: "It has been remarked that Balzac was the first to introduce the question of money into the novel. It is one of the chief merits of M. d'Avenel that he has introduced the question of money into history....'How Richelieu kept his troops provisioned,' observed Michelet, 'we do not know.' We know now, thanks to M. d'Avenel, how Richelieu kept his troops provisioned. And this is neither less useful nor less interesting than this or that detail of the battle of La Marfée, which has been recounted so often."

All these books, notwithstanding their great erudition, are eminently readable. M. d'Avenel loves life so intensely that he makes whatever he touches live. He possesses both the literary sense and the literary faculty in a high degree. His historical works give as vivid a picture of the past as historical novels could give. Indeed, it is evident that he might easily have been a successful historical novelist if he had not elected to be a historian.

Since the completion of his "Economic History" M. d'Avenel has consecrated himself to another colossal enterprise, namely, the writing of a sort of contemporary social history, if the phrase may be permitted, which he calls "Le Mécanisme de la Vie Moderne" ("The Mechanism of Modern Life"), and which he describes as "a voyage of exploration through the complicated organs of the existence of to-day." In this monumental work, of which five volumes have already appeared, he is doing for the society and institutions of the third republic something akin to that which Maxime du Camp did for the society and institutions of the second empire, but more methodically, more accurately, and with a historical perspective and sense of proportion which du Camp, with all his brilliancy, sadly lacked. The future historian who shall desire to write a social history of France under the third republic will have an easy task, since he will find in M. d'Avenel's "Mechanism of Modern Life" all his data ready to hand.

In a recent book entitled "Les Francais de mon Temps," which grew in a way out of his "Mechanism of Modern Life," M. d'Avenel has given free rein to his literary bent and has revealed himself a social satirist of the first order. In fact, some of his admirers have even gone so far as to compare this volume with the "Caractères" of La Bruyère.

M. d'Avenel's preoccupation with the social and economic side of history is one of the signs of the times. And while it is impossible that all his discoveries regarding the social and economic past of France should possess the same significance for Americans that they possess for Frenchmen, some of them are intimately associated with truths of universal application which Americans can not afford to ignore.

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PRIVATE SECRETARIES OF THE MIGHTY

SKETCHES OF THE WORK AND CHARACTERISTICS OF FOUR HIGHLY IMPORTANT MEN—THE SECRETARIES OF PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT, SPEAKER CANNON, SECRETARY CORTELYOU AND SECRETARY TAFT

Portraits on pages 229-253

BY

WILLARD FRENCH

THE name "Secretary" has so many meanings in Washington that it is little wonder the stranger is confused. "Private secretary to ——" is simpler, but I have found that for the most part people take it to mean a personally employed stenographer who is prepared to act more or less as a scapegoat on occasions. Alas, for the private secretaries!

The private secretaries of the mighty, in Washington, are a class alone. A better set of men, more intelligent, patient, shrewd, important, is not to be found. Their positions are public and official. Their duties demand indomitable workers. Their responsibilities call for men of the highest integrity, acumen and loyalty. There are many view-points from which they appear second only to the mighty ones they serve.

Of them all William Loeb, Jr., is distinctly king. It is not altogether because he is secretary to the king. By his own right and personality he is king of private secretaries. His official title, by the way, is "Secretary to the President." The "private" has been dropped. The sooner the departments follow suit, the better it will be; for these men live so near the light that shines that unless something goes wrong they are little enough conspicuous — except to those who are hunting for their chiefs. The self-effacing prefix should not help to hide them.

When one is under the impression that he has business with the chief is the time that the secretary looms large in the foreground. He is always the first, frequently the substance and the last of the interview. When one understands, the secretary becomes an aid instead of an obstacle. He is an invaluable acquisition when he is acquired, but his duty is to relieve his chief. Without him the chief could not begin to accomplish the business which he apparently turns off.

The scope of each of the executive departments is immeasurably greater than a few years ago. There are no Sleepy Hollows, now, along the path of the President and his official family. No one feels this increase of departmental work so much as the private secretary. Every addition for the head means double and more for the hands; for one of the most exacting duties of the private secretary is to investigate, sift, reduce to the minimum and classify department business, before presenting it to his chief — to report the concrete substance of a half hour's conversation in two minutes and return simply the reply, without argument.

At the White House it is a little more complex, voluminous and strenuous, as the vortex of it all, but the departments follow in close line. Business has increased immeasurably, in the last score of years, demanding many additions to the clerical force under the direction of the private secretary. The duties and importance of the secretary have correspondingly increased. To-day the secretary to the President holds a position of responsibility, honor and distinction never known before in our history. He must meet, satisfactorily, all the kinds and conditions of people coming in an endless chain to the White House offices —

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in less degree to the departments. It demands the delicacy of the diplomat, the strategy of the statesman, the facility of the politician, the shrewdness of the financier, the courage, alertness and common sense of all successful men combined, and the patience of Job. Loeb is it. Therefore is he king.

Congressmen, cabinet officers and a few are privileged to condense their own affairs and take them direct to the President. All the rest are wrung out in the office of the secretary, to be condensed or disposed of by Loeb. Strangers are most apt to think their missions paramount and that they should be taken at once to the throne. It requires both skill and patience to convince them to the contrary. Others, even among the privileged, know from experience that the wisest way to approach the throne successfully is often through the king of secretaries, so they too come to Loeb. This confusion of ideas, complaints, requests and consultations is worse confounded because the constant line of visitors is always interspersed with the widest awake of newspaper men, seeking information upon every subject under heaven. The secretary's office is a busy place from nine in the morning till often after eight at night.

This is but a fraction of Loeb's work. In comparison he counts it one of the minor responsibilities. The secretary to the President is essentially his *alter ego*. He must have the unrestricted confidence of his chief in everything. To him the chief commits himself in public and private concerns. He must not only receive but give suggestion and advice, for in many matters he must be better posted than his chief. Upon his judgment and conclusions the chief must often rely as though they were his own. But this, too, is only a phase of the private secretary's responsibilities.

Probably no mortal in the United States reads and replies to so many letters, every day, as does Loeb. The number is rarely less than three hundred. Frequently it runs over a thousand and, with few exceptions, they are all answered. Most of them are naturally meant for the President, but few of them can by any possibility be called to his attention. To most of these few the President only suggests the nature of the reply. To very few indeed he fixes his own signature. The secretary's long experience in New York politics and with public men supplements his inherent genius for doing and saying the right thing at the right time, and the White House mail, too, relies chiefly on his individual intuition. Another incident.

The time has long past when the private secretary of the mighty sits at his chief's elbow as an intermittent stenographer and utility catch-all. He sits supreme in his own office, with a clerical force to assist him, though subject at any instant to the call of his chief. He must be a cyclopedia of everything pertaining to his chief, to answer his questions, posting him instantly upon the details of whatever is under discussion or consideration. He must know the exact status of everything to answer quickly and accurately the thousand questions propounded from outside. This is another incident. The social phase of the responsibilities of the secretary to the President, at least to-day, presents one of its most serious propositions. Complex, delicate, critical, the questions come with merciless regularity with the social season. Amenities and contingencies necessitate that some must be turned down, some temporarily deposed. The secretary must do it all and do it in a way to cause the least reaction upon his chief. An absolute knowledge of all kinds of political complications is more necessary here than in almost any other consideration. Congressmen and political powers must be appeased and pleased. They must not be offended. The worst of it is, that these matters touch the woman's sphere. Women take things to heart more than men, and when women take a hurt to heart it is serious for the men. They have made and unmade even the mightiest of the mighty for no more cause than some blunder which Loeb could easily make, if he were the kind of a man who made blunders. This is another incident.

To the world the most important function of the secretary to the President, to him the most delicate and dangerous, is his position, recently vividly emphasized, as purveyor of news. More and more the President has centered the source of news in the White House, which is only

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another name for Loeb. The secretary's office is always open to members of the press, by whom he is constantly assailed. He is the custodian of the President's secrets which must not escape, the mouthpiece for all that is to be given out, and responsible for all the shades of diction or contradiction which conditions, sometimes of the moment, render requisite and necessary as well for the administration and for the public. Any one who has ever been plied for half an hour by reporters bent on learning something, and read the result of the interview in the next morning papers, may feel, to a degree, what it must be to sit, day in and out, in the midst of other endless complications, the center of the brightest inquisitors produced by the American press, with Scylla on one side and Charybdis on the other. That is Loeb. No president ever had a better press agent.

The work which Loeb does, if he were doing it for the manager of a corporation, would bring him a salary of $25,000 a year in the place of the $5,000 he receives. He will easily earn it when he leaves the White House, but it is dollars to doughnuts that a salary does not tempt Loeb from his present position. He is too much the man for the place.

Meet him for the first time and you know, at a glance, that William Loeb, Jr., is a man out of the ordinary. He is put together with the solid symmetry which gives the impression of a large man, but the President is not tall and Loeb is an inch or two shorter. His black hair and mustache, his quick, dark eyes that move without waiting for his head to turn — a head that is finely foreheaded and delicately chinned and rests with superb self-reliance on his square shoulders — put Loeb well up in the class of handsome men the President is prone to draw about him. The whole make-up of the man betrays the genius of penetration, the courage of convictions, the personification of invincible energy. You see him and you know why he is king of private secretaries.

He moves and speaks with the deliberate dignity of one who thoroughly understands himself. The secret of success, supplementing this, is his untiring patience in making others understand him. I have not heard of it if any one ever saw Loeb out of temper, but every line of him, from forehead to foot, shows that grand possibilities for that kind of thing lie patiently waiting the necessity for something else than imperturbable courtesy. He has a warm heart for the right when it is in trouble and a strong hand to redress a wrong. But he has a keen eye, too, for a scorpion in a bed of roses, which he has more than once or twice discovered, to the satisfaction of the President and the discomfort of the scorpion.

Withal, Loeb has only turned forty, and betrays but a part of that. He has Time well by the forelock. We may know what he is, but it doth not yet appear what he will be when he breaks from the fetters of impersonality which have so far held him, all his life, to be all that is in him. He is one who will be heard from.

The duties of the private secretaries of the cabinet differ chiefly in degree. Their personalities differ widely enough in kind but not in quality. They are there because, either through long association with their chiefs in other spheres or long association in the departments where they serve, they have all developed the genius of work — of handling men and things quickly and correctly — and the capacity to have and to hold a thorough knowledge of their chiefs: their private business interests, their idiosyncrasies, their aspirations, their weakness and their strength. It would surprise the world to know how often the private secretary's advice is asked — how often it is accepted; how much of the department business bears only the impress of his submerged individuality.

One of the most energetic and successful workers among these men is Fred Warner Carpenter, private secretary to Secretary Taft, in the overworked War Department. When he comes from his office into the grand reception room of the department, where every visitor must be inspected and his mission weighed before he is admitted to the sanctum of the ponderous chief — when Carpenter comes in to inspect you, you see, coming across the room, a boyish-looking fellow — smaller for the bigness of the room about him, where everything looks small — with a smooth face that is rather narrow, under an overhanging brow somewhat obscured by low-growing hair. You note a

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dominant nose and a mouth that is firmly closed. By that time you get a look under the eyebrows, into a pair of big brown eyes, and you forget about the rest. His voice is as low, as gentle, as solemn as his face. His words are as deliberate, as dignified as the way he comes across the room. No one was ever more cordially, almost deferentially, courteous; but the chances are that you feel indescribably rattled. There is no indication of haste about him, but you are irresistibly impelled to rush your errand impossible knots an hour. Presently you realize that he has possessed himself of the meat of your mission and decided whether you are to see the Secretary. You stop to catch your breath, and he quietly gives you all the information the department will vouchsafe, on whatever subject you have broached. You may as well be satisfied with it, for you will get no more. He either tells you to wait and the Secretary will see you in a moment, or — what is more likely — starts you down the corridor, half dazed, wondering who the dickens that boyish-looking fellow is, anyway.

It is only the private secretary of the Secretary of War, doing his duty as few could have done it if they tried their best. If you should see him half a second after he has got rid of you, it would be back in his office, which guards the entrance to his chief's, surrounded by clerks, up to his ears and eyes in work, going about it all just as quietly as he went about you, and accomplishing it as quickly and correctly as he accomplished you.

He stumbled into the place and has but the luck of things to thank for tossing him where he belongs. He did most of his growing on his father's ranch in California, studied law and took his bachelor and master degrees and was admitted to the bar in Minneapolis. Then he returned to San Francisco and for want of a better way to make a quick start, entered the law office of Bishop & Wheeler, as stenographer. Away in the Philippines Judge Taft, president of the Philippine Commission, wanted a stenographer. A friend spoke of Carpenter. Taft cabled an offer, Carpenter started for Manila. That was all. He was raised to private secretary and has been up and down and round the world with Taft ever since.

There never was a man better made for a place than Carpenter. His mildness may mislead you, but if there are reasons of state why something which you know very well ought to be done will not be done, you would better take Carpenter's gentle assurance of the fact than try to fight your way through to the Secretary. It will not be done, in either case.

What a difference there is in men and methods that accomplish precisely the same end. Two men could hardly be less alike than Loeb and Carpenter. No one is less like either of them than H. O. Weaver. They are all of them expert stenographers, but that is their only common charm. Weaver does not look like a man who works all day and all night and accomplishes more than two ordinary men, but he does it. Weaver is tall, with an inclination to be thin, and wears glasses. They do not make him look old — nothing could or ever will. He is not old yet. He is only thirty-three. But the fact is he will never grow old, in spite of the dogged persistency with which he sticks to his desk and the amount of brain and back-breaking work which he throws off. He can not grow old. He is too much a man of smiles. The others seldom smile. Weaver always smiles. He is too everlastingly good natured. Everybody loves him and he makes everybody think that he loves them. It is a wonder how he ever turns any one down. But he does turn them down, scores of them, and holds them down, smiling all the time. It makes extra work for him, that good nature of his, for unless a man is a downright fraud and has to be told so, Weaver can not turn him down in a way to extinguish a ray of hope which brings him back again.

Just now Weaver is private secretary to the Postmaster-General, and there is not an item of the postoffice system which he has not at the tip of his tongue and his fingers. When Cortelyou was Secretary of Commerce and Labor, Weaver was still his private secretary; still the same kind-hearted, lovable fellow, and better posted than any one in the department in all the bewildering ramifications of that rapidly developing infant prodigy. When Cortelyou was chairman of the National Republican Committee, Weaver was his private secretary. I do not believe he

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loves politics a little bit. He is not that kind. But there was not an in or out of the game which he could not play, or keep others playing, which resulted in President Roosevelt's pleasant victory. It had an effect like a reflection of Weaver's smile. There was something of it worked into the victory. But he is not that kind of a man. Why, he neither smokes nor drinks nor — goodness knows! I do not believe he even plays football.

When Cortelyou becomes Secretary of the Treasury, on March 4, Weaver will still be his secretary, with the "private" left off, according to the usage of the treasury, following the example of the White House, and it's a guess that does not need another that the day after he takes up his quarters there it will be difficult to put to him a question about treasury business that he will not be able to answer, with a smile.

They say that Cortelyou is a man who is "baund t'go uppards." It looks that way. Weaver will go with him, and by and by he will know all about everything. He looks as though he really ought to have been a clergyman. He has that *pax vobiscum* way with him. The scanty hair over his forehead suggests it. The gently dogged way in which he shuts his mouth when it comes time for "Amen," says it like words. That's a secret that saves him where his good nature would sacrifice him, that way he has of shutting his mouth. Any one with a sheep's intuition knows enough, then, to call a halt.

His smooth-shaven face and everything about it, glasses and all, is more ministerial than private secretaryish, but there was not enough by searching to be found out in that one department. That is why Weaver belongs where he is. He came to Washington as civil service stenographer and went into the War Department, then over to the White House, where Cortelyou was secretary to the President, and when Cortelyou went higher he went with him. But there was not enough, even in Commerce and Labor, the National Republican Committee in campaign time, and the Postoffice Department to satisfy his greed. While attending to these things he has completed a five years' course in the Columbian University law department, taken the bachelor, master, and doctor of civil law degrees, passed the District of Columbia bar examinations and been admitted to practice. Talk about a genius for absorption! Cortelyou has found one.

Speaking of the many kinds of individuality among the signally successful private secretaries of the mighty, the last man of them all to overlook is Papa Cannon's private secretary, L. White Busbey.

To be private secretary to the Speaker of the House of Representatives, especially when that Speaker is Uncle Joe, is a matter of unqualified importance. Busbey fills it to perfection. It is different from being a private secretary in the executive departments. Busbey is different. There is little of the social perplexities to mix matters and there is not so much of the executive as in the departments, though there's a good bit of executive spice, after all, for Uncle Joe is nothing if he is not executive. There are politics and legislation at white heat. It is men and measures, day and night, turned into the same vital responsibility to save the chief by sifting, disposing and systematizing applicants and arguments; keeping every fact, event, incident, accident and the details of it on tap for instant use when the chief requires it, and knowing just what to say and how to say it to every one else.

It is like master like man with Papa Cannon and Busbey. It is "birds of a feather" flocking together. They are not in the least alike, yet they are drops of water from the same fountain. What the Speaker does not know he knows precisely where to go to find out. What Busbey can not accomplish is what his chief is in no danger of wanting accomplished.

Busbey says that in taking his present position he was astonished to find how simple and open and aboveboard everything was in the office of the Speaker of the House, how the star chamber atmosphere vanished into thin, honest air, when you came near enough to breathe it, which is all very true when two men are at the helm who know how to accomplish what is desirable in an open and aboveboard style. It is impossible for some men to be severe and parliamentary at the same time. It is not that way with either Busbey or his chief.

Busbey had not had more experience at being private secretary than Cannon at

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being Speaker of the House, when they joined forces in their present valuable combination. But both had been through drastic training in the legislative department of the field of men and measures.

For twenty years Busbey was with the Chicago *Inter Ocean,* first, in all the Mississippi valley states, then in Washington, watching national and political men and events. He was the best known and the best knowing of the political writers of the middle West. He was with President McKinley in his private car during the several trips and campaign tours he made. What he did not know of politicians and their ways and means when Cannon caught him would be hardly worth trying to find out. He had edited the Campaign Handbook for the Republican Congressional Committee, and supplied the press bureau with copy. Speaker Cannon was not mistaken in his man, as he usually is not.

Busbey is the gray-haired and bearded one among the secretaries of the mighty; but it is not the result of age. His tremendous shock of hair is just a bit frost-bitten, and his beard and mustache are quite gray under the stress of his strenuous life. He has large, dark, wide-open eyes and a dominant nose of the kind that goes straight for the inwardness of men and measures political. If he were not, like his chief, a thoroughly honest man, like him he would be a thoroughly dangerous man.

Busbey is a man who demands instinctive respect and commands confidence, while his long experience in the newspaper field has particularly fitted him for one of the most delicate duties of his position: purveyor of information to the press. As the source of information, legislative, he holds much the position which Loeb holds with news executive. Speaker Cannon trusts him to the limit with all the secrets of the throne, and newspaper men all realize the benefit of retaining his confidence. A grave responsibility rests upon his shoulders as to just what to give out and when, which few could bear without breaks. Busbey does it because he is the man for the place.

The secretaries of the mighty are a bigger, better, more important class of men to-day than ever before in the history of the nation. The imprint of their overshadowed individuality grows constantly deeper upon affairs of state. Their influence will continue to increase with every year of the country's development. The character and cast of the men in these offices, to-day, speaks volumes for the integrity, the honor and the ability of the administration.

FROM SADDLE TO SENATE

THE REMARKABLE CAREER OF CHARLES CURTIS, A KAW INDIAN

BY

SHEFFIELD COWDRICK

WHEN Charles Curtis took his seat as senator from Kansas, the Indian race for the first time received representation in the Senate of the United States. Senator Curtis is descended from the Kaw Indians, and has been formally recognized by the survivors of the tribe. It is the first time a state has sent to the Senate a man with any appreciable amount of Indian blood in his veins.

Although slightly less than one-quarter Indian, Curtis might, from his features and his swarthy skin, be taken for a full-blood. "The Indian" he has been called, sometimes in hate, sometimes in admiration, throughout his political career. "Beat the Indian" was the battle cry in many a hard-fought campaign. But it was not easy to beat the Indian who has just reached a dominating place in Kansas politics. Curtis has the wily per-

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sistence and dogged determination in a fight that mark him as a true son of his Kaw ancestors. Faithful to his friends, relentless toward his enemies, he crushed or won over one man after another until his election to the United States Senate marked a new alignment of Kansas factions and stands at the beginning of a new epoch in the political history of the state.

A few days before he went to Washington, Curtis was standing in the state senate chamber at Topeka. A state senator came up to greet him.

"I hardly know," he said, "whether to call you 'Senator' or 'Charley.'"

"Better call me 'Charley,'" promptly replied the man who had just received the highest political honor within the gift of the state. And "Charley" he continues to be to the hundreds of men in Kansas who have known him intimately during the forty-seven years of his life.

It is no strange thing for a man to lay the foundation for future greatness by selling papers on the streets. Seldom, however, does a high career take its start in front of the judge's stand at the race-track. Charles Curtis in his boyhood not only sold papers, but he rode races as a jockey on the track. The new Kansas senator still bears the scars left by a fall from a wild horse which, with characteristic boldness, he had undertaken to subdue. Another occupation of the future senator was driving a hack. For some time he drove a hack at night, sharing the receipts with the owner of the vehicle,

CHARLES CURTIS, THE FIRST UNITED STATES SENATOR OF THE INDIAN RACE.

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But, to whatever work he turned his hand in his early struggles for a livelihood, young Curtis always found time for reading and study.

One day the boy walked into the law office of A. H. Case, then one of the most prominent lawyers in Kansas. "I want to read law and pay for it by doing your office work," he announced.

"But, my boy," was the reply of the lawyer, "there are more poor lawyers now than the profession can support."

"But I'm not going to be a poor lawyer," said the boy. "I want to be a good one." In two years he was admitted to the bar.

When he was twenty-four years of age Curtis was elected county attorney of Shawnee county. Topeka, the state capital and Curtis's birthplace, was a "wide-open" town in spite of the prohibitory amendment which had been adopted in Kansas some four years before. Curtis himself was the lawyer who had defended the saloonmen against the efforts of the well-meaning temperance man who preceded him as county attorney. His election caused much grief to the people who believed in the enforcement of law.

Immediately after taking office Curtis sent word to the saloonkeepers that they must quit business. The saloonmen were delighted at the excellent witticism of their friend 'Charley.' But in a few days another order came. This was carrying a joke too far. Curtis was rebuked for his presumption.

"It's no use, boys," he said. "You've got to close. I took an oath to enforce the law and I'm going to do it." There were pleas, angry expostulations, then open defiance. One month after the new county attorney took office there was not a saloon in Topeka, and a number of wealthy and more or less prominent citizens were in the county jail.

Charles Curtis is one of the most consummate politicians that ever lived in Kansas. With a political acumen equal to that of Senator Chester I. Long, he has a hold upon the affections of the people that gives him a strength immeasurably greater than any the other Kansas senator can ever possess. During his fourteen years in Congress he has beaten down the most powerful political combinations ever formed in the state.

Curtis is a man blameless in private life. "During all the campaign trips I have taken with him," said an old acquaintance of the Senator, "he has never tasted liquor or smoked a cigar. I have never heard him use an oath." Such is the character of the man who began his career on the box of a night hack and in the silk jacket of a jockey.

THE AFTERMATH OF KINGSTON

BY

BROUGHTON BRANDENBURG

NOW and then nature takes a hand in man's affairs and undoes the work of centuries. A few weeks ago there was an earthquake in Solomon Islands which opened crevasses forty yards wide; a little later an earthquake and tidal wave in the Dutch East Indies killed between five and six thousand people, but a moderate quake of very small area chances to occur in Jamaica and has Kingston as its center, and as a result more history is made than we can yet realize.

The sunny pleasant afternoon of January 2 saw the metropolis of the black island colony of England, happy and prosperous, under the calm, even government of Sir Alexander Swettenham, K. C. M. G., an official of wide colonial expe-

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rience. Sir Alfred Jones, one of England's foremost men, and a party of eighty prominent English ladies and gentlemen had arrived a few days before on the large Direct Liner, the Port Kingston. Several hundred Americans brought to Jamaica for the winter months were in and about Kingston. Ninety miles away in Guantanamo Bay rode a fleet of white American warships. The great English-speaking nations were on terms of extreme friendliness, not a jar had occurred between them in many years. The situation was quite ready for the interference of nature.

Somewhere under the earth there was a great upheaval. Kingston, built of brick and old masonry, was rattled down by the surface tremor, and Americans, English and Jamaicans were left foodless, roofless and distracted when the ensuing fire had swept over the depots of provisions. Sir Alexander Swettenham immediately began to behave like the excited foreman of a ditch gang. When, on January 17, the battle-ships Missouri and Indiana and the destroyer Whipple arrived in Kingston and began the relief of the city after having had their formal offer of aid accepted by the authorities, Governor Swettenham contrived bluntly to insult Admiral Davis and his men and requested their withdrawal. The people of the United States were amazed and angry. So were the diplomats of Great Britain, who immediately disclaimed responsibility for the governor's action. The American government hastened to accept the apology and close the incident. The government was ignorant of other and equally grave things that had transpired before Admiral Davis and his vessels arrived. Several hundred wounded and homeless refugees, including a number of Ameri-

By courtesy of the Chicago *Daily News*

JOHN'S LANE ALLEY, KINGSTON

Some idea of the force of the earthquake can be gained from the position of the telephone poles

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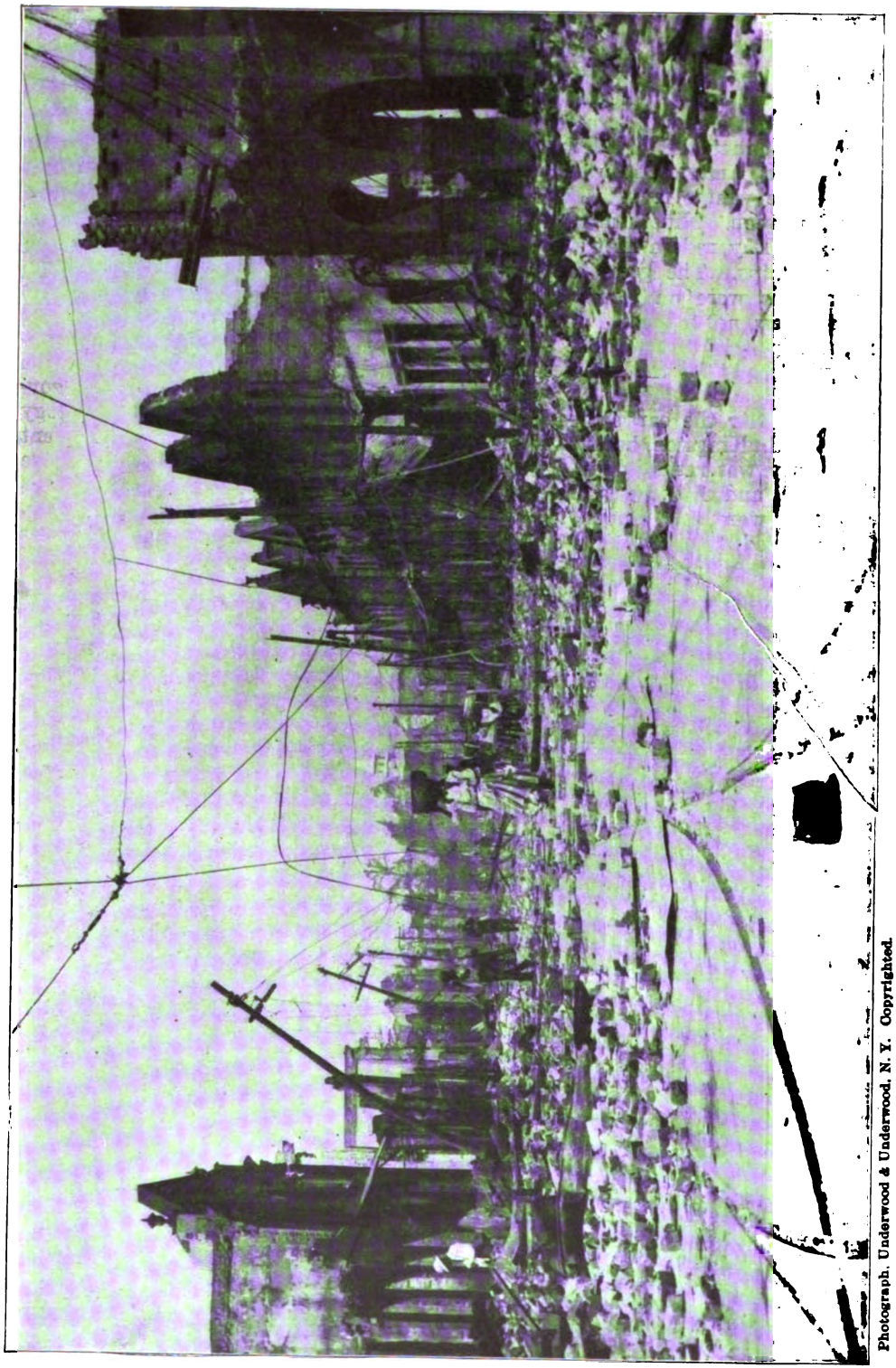

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LOOKING UP KING STREET TOWARD THE KINGSTON PARISH CHURCH

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cans, had been hurried on board the Port Kingston Monday night. They were put off on Tuesday to make room for Sir Alfred Jones and his party of superior persons. This was but the beginning of repeated evidences of the preferment of English whites over American whites, and before the fires of Kingston were dead there was another slight which is still burning a flame of resentment and ill feeling between the English and Americans which no amount of smooth speech will quench. I was one of those who felt the treatment accorded to American ladies and gentlemen by English ladies and gentlemen, and I unhesitatingly assert that the Kingston crisis disclosed to us that in place of the affection and admiration we have been led to believe they felt for us, there is dislike, jealousy and cool contempt.

That is not all. The American fruit companies by giving Jamaica a market for her fruit saved the island from slowly dropping back into a colony of secondary importance to Great Britain. The Jamaicans, at the time of the Spanish-American war, were greatly alarmed at the discovery that their island's prosperity was dependent on the American fruit companies and decided to build up an English market. The Direct Line of which Sir Alfred Jones is the head, was subsidized $100,000 annually by the Jamaican government, and the same by the home government, to carry a stated number of bananas to England. The subsidy was begun and the English market opened up nicely. With the United Fruit Company offset by English competition the Jamaicans were very happy and very loyal until they awoke one fine morning and found that the Englishmen who had taken and were prepared to continue to take their subsidy, a large one for the colony, had sold them out to the United Fruit Company. How different things would be if we were an American colony, said the native-born Jamaicans, to which the English residents replied, Heaven forbid. Love of America, Americans and American ways has been growing steadily for years. The rude act of an English governor who had made himself unpopular overnight by bald incompetency, which deprived the sufferers of Kingston of the assistance of the American fleet, precipitated a pro-Americanism among Jamaican native leaders in business and politics which is yet to be heard from and is the most important thing in connection with the earthquake so far as Jamaica is concerned.

Turning from the important aspect to the incidental, some of the happenings of the days of death and panic are things that deserve to be set down in permanent form. The heroic behavior of a few men is in striking contrast with the conduct of many. Perhaps twenty native Jamaican gentlemen gave conspicuous exhibitions of bravery and self-sacrifice to which it is a pleasure to bear testimony. Three of these are Messrs. Sayles, De Valda and Barclay. Opposite the general postoffice stood the Harbour street fire station. Sayles was the highest officer in charge in that district. When the fire was advancing on the administration buildings and was about to attack the treasury, the black firemen had all deserted long before and Sayles had manned the hose alone and was waging an unequal battle when De Valda and Barclay, bent on rescue work, saw him. The three men stubbornly fought the flames with the low-pressure streams until several hundred thousand dollars' worth of property and records of incalculable value were safe from the conflagration.

A young surgeon whose name I could not learn forced his way into the heart of the devastated district when to pass through the streets was at the risk of one's life, and opened up a temporary hospital on the stoop of a house on North King street. He was performing operations without anæsthetics and working by the light of the fire and the uncertain gleam of a lantern when he was seen by Guy Perley Woodman and Harry Roberts, two young American tourists. They volunteered to help him, and all through that awful first night, soaked with blood, unmindful of the horrors and the dangers, they strove to save human lives.

Dr. Henry Beigel, an English physician visiting in the island, chanced to be in the heart of the city. I saw him a short time before the earthquake near the spot where more than twenty were killed, yet he escaped. With him was an American lady whom he protected by thrusting her under an archway. After

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conveying her and some other bewildered refugees aboard the small steamer Naparima lying in the harbor, Doctor Beigel set out on a twenty-four hour round of mercy among the hundreds of wounded. He extemporized instruments, made splints and bandages, and wherever I went among the sufferers the next morning, they were praising him.

On the sandbar and coral reef which protects Kingston Harbor lay the beautiful cruising yacht, Prinzessin Victoria Luise. On shore, having toiled a month to get the wreck stripped and ready to float again, were Chief Officer Vahsel and a handful of picked men, all stalwart Germans. Vahsel had succeeded to the captaincy on the death of Captain Brunswig. When the avalanche of flame was sweeping down on the docks, all the black dock laborers that could escape, fled. Only the little company of white men stood their ground. Captain Vahsel got out the lines of dock hose and marshaled his little band. All night long, using the engine of a small steam craft to do the pumping, they fought the flames. For two hours I watched them from a point far to the eastward on the other brink of the fire and I wondered that any members of the fire department, the black constabulary or the military, could be found

Courtesy of the Chicago *Daily News*

THE PARISH CHURCH OF KINGSTON

A Chinaman is said to have climbed into this tower to ring the bell on February 7. He thought he would be rewarded. He was arrested

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THE MYRTLE BANK HOTEL
One entire outer wall fell away from the building

to do such service. In the morning, I learned who they were and understood.

I have repeatedly mentioned the failure of the blacks to do their duty. There was one who did. I do not know his name, but the metal remnants on his charred corpse showed that he was constable No. 22. He was on duty in Harbour Street and escaped injury in the earthquake. His comrades about him fled, but he stood manfully to his duty of rescuing the wounded, and had borne many to the King Street market wharf when he made his last journey back. Those who saw him say the white tunic that covered his broad shoulders was almost entirely red with blood. The flames were swooping down on the district where hundreds had been caught under the debris and he worked like mad to get at least some of the helpless out of the way before they perished by fire. No one will ever know just what the end was. The boatmen who were taking the wounded from the wharf saw him go back to the verge of the roaring hell and the next morning the searchers found the charred remains of two bodies lying very close together. One of them was the heroic constable.

There were some marvelous escapes, the circumstances of which I investigated very carefully and which are almost incredible. Several children in the family of a Mrs. DeCordova were playing around a heavy table when the earthquake shock came. The whole house was literally flattened. The collapse was complete and yet the children were absolutely unhurt. The table kept one floor and the roof from crushing them and they made their escape through a hole they broke in the roof.

John H. Field of Boston was one of the guests at the Myrtle Bank Hotel which was entirely ruined. He was in his room on the third floor in the north wing when the shock began. He could not get the door of his room open and was clinging to the knob when the building collapsed. When he recovered consciousness he was before a doorway of the other wing, fully

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By courtesy of the Chicago *Daily News*

THE VICTORIA STATUE

As if by caprice of the earthquake the statue was turned on its pedestal

one hundred and twenty feet distant from his starting point. His severest injuries were two broken ribs.

Alphonso Henriques, a young clerk in one of the principal stores, was talking with two other clerks and two patrons when the crash came. The four others were killed while he was saved by being struck by two large piles of dry goods which fended the debris from him. He was pinned, however, and remained helpless for a long time, until seeing the approach of the fire he became desperate and succeeded in extricating himself.

Something both amusing and pathetic was the liability to panic on the part of the survivors for days after the catastrophe. The dining-room of the Constant Spring Hotel was intact and the guests ventured to eat dinner there on Monday evening. A waiter dropped a plate, two women screamed and a hundred dignified ladies and gentlemen poured out of the windows and door and over the veranda railing. Thousands of homeless clustered under the tents of the Lowande circus on the old race course. Every time the lions roared there was a grand panic all over the place. Two hundred American refugees were sleeping on the boards, sacks of coffee and bales of hay on the Hamburg-American dock. The Port Kingston, lying with steam up at the next dock, suddenly blew off steam and it took a dozen men to prevent some of the women from jumping into the sea.

A lot of mountain negroes coming down to see the sights found one of the trolley cars at the top of a hill where the crew had left it. They decided to have a coast down hill and started it. The officious black at the brakes did not know how to operate them and there was a mad runaway for half a mile. The shouting and screaming with the rumbling and screeching of the brakes when they were finally applied, started a panic among several thousand refugees asleep along the road and as they fled more thousands joined them. The panic continued till the people wore themselves out and stopped to ask what the matter was. The governor had the soldiers announce that at 5 o'clock on Tuesday there would be a tidal wave. He wished to clear the lower city of population. With his general lack of sense he misjudged the results. A frightful panic followed. Tens of thousands of people went miles into the hills only to turn around and come back again, carrying their children, old and wounded, with them.

The earthquake was a terrible thing for the white Jamaicans and for the business interests of Kingston, but it did not seriously affect the mass of the population, the blacks. The briefest way I can set this forth is to quote what I heard one of the old negro preachers praying in a prayer-meeting of refugees in one of the parks. After rendering up gratitude for the salvation of all around him from the calamity that had been caused by the wickedness and oppression of the white people, he shouted "But Glory Hallelujah, Court House him all gawn. Hosawnah in de 'ighest, de jail him all smosh!"

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

Savings Banks and Industrial Insurance

By Frederick W. Coburn

WHATEVER the evils attendant upon ordinary life insurance practice, as disclosed in recent revelations of untrustworthiness in high places, no other branch of the business has been proved to exhibit such downright wastefulness, such needless exploitation of the needy, as appears in that form known as industrial insurance. Wage-earners, who purchase from their savings protection for their families on the plan of weekly instalments, pay for what they get from two to eight times as much per dollar of insurance value as their more happily situated neighbors who are able to take out larger policies at longer intervals of payment of premiums.

Just how the State of Massachusetts, if a bill to come before the legislature this spring fulfills the expectations of its very many advocates, will deal with this most serious of all insurance problems, would seem to suggest an appropriate chapter in the making of to-morrow. The modern plan of safeguarding the savings of the poor in savings banks originated in the Bay State just ninety years ago, as well as the modern science of life insurance, first reduced to exactness by Elizur Wright about half a century ago. A similar movement to that in Massachusetts has been started in New York and the agitation bids fair to spread to every American state.

The iniquity of the present system must be conceded, not simply as regards this country but as to the whole civilized world. Neither the figures, indeed, nor the deductions made from them have ever been denied even by the officials of the companies which offer industrial insurance. They rest on a Gibraltar-like basis of facts. There has been proved not indeed so much the essential wickedness of any individual or group of individuals as the downright stupidity and wastefulness of a type of insurance in which more than fifty per cent of all the premiums paid in are required for the conduct of the business — a system under which the laborer contributing a few cents a week from his scanty pay envelope is actually charged out of all proportion to the value of the protection received.

The immense injustice to the neediest portion of the community, of such a system, one that is complicated with an appalling percentage of lapses which serve as a charge upon the policies that are kept up, has been plentifully discussed in the public prints during the last few months. The remedy which Massachusetts seems likely to adopt is so simple that if it works in one state it can hardly fail to be applied universally.

The bill to be introduced into the legislature on Beacon Hill will, if it passes, permit, though it will not require, all the 189 savings banks of the state to engage in industrial insurance under certain proper restrictions. Opposition will no doubt be encountered, but behind the measure is the powerful and influential Savings Insurance League of Massachusetts, organized for the express purpose of passing this bill and encouraging savings banks to take advantage of the provisions of the law.

The energetic movers in this agitation are Mr. Brandeis and the secretary of the League, Norman H. White, both of whom are devoting time without compensation to this reform which they are convinced is of much more than local importance. Mr. Brandeis, born in Kentucky in 1856, and a graduate of the Harvard Law School in the class of 1877, has for many years been

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one of the most prominent members of the bar in Boston. Throughout his career he has freely given his services to numerous public causes without financial remuneration. Boston has, in fact, no more useful citizen. To Mr. Brandeis's ability and foresight was due the settlement, a little more than a year ago, of the difficulties regarding the gas utility which for many years perplexed the New England capital. Somewhat earlier Mr. Brandeis led the movement which made it possible for the city of Boston to own its subways.

Mr. White, born at Montclair, New Jersey, is a graduate of Harvard in the class of 1895. A valuable part of his business experience was gained in taking over, while still a very young man, the management of a bankrupt publishing house, which was restored to sound financial condition within a few months after its creditors had expected to realize hardly 5 cents on the dollar. Mr. White has entered the legislature as a member from the town of Brookline solely with the thought of rendering efficient public service.

The Negro as an American Soldier

By William H. Head

WHEN the Fifty-first Massachusetts stormed Fort Wagner, July 18, 1863, to be driven back only when it had lost its gallant colonel, Robert Gould Shaw, and many of its rank and file, a Negro color-bearer crawling to the front and protecting himself behind a pile of logs, under a galling fire held the flag of our country there for hours while his regiment surged back and forth often many yards behind him. It was then established that the Negro as a United States soldier could fight.

Previous to the Civil War Negroes had fought in our armies. The Battle of Long Island was one of the best fought of the Revolution. Mr. Arnold in his "History of Rhode Island" says that, "in repelling the repeated assaults of the enemy the newly raised black regiment under Colonel Greene distinguished itself by desperate deeds of bravery. Posted behind a thicket in the valley they three times drove back the Hessians who charged repeatedly down the hill to dislodge them." When the Colonel was surprised and murdered near Point Bridge, New York, May 14, 1781, his colored soldiers heroically defended him till they were cut to pieces, the enemy reaching him only over the dead bodies of his faithful Negroes.

Hon. Charles Pinckney of South Carolina said: "To their hands we owe the erection of the greatest part of the fortifications raised for the protection of our country, some of which, particularly Fort Moultrie, gave at that early period of the inexperience and untried valor of our citizens, immortality to American arms." In the North numerous bodies of colored men were enrolled and fought by the side of the whites the battles of the Revolution.

Speaking to his colored troops in New Orleans, December 18, 1814, General Jackson said: "I knew that you could endure hunger and thirst and all the hardships of war; I knew that you loved the land of your nativity and that like ourselves you had determined to defend all that is most dear to man. But you surpass my hopes. I have found in you united those qualities, that noble enthusiasm which impels to great deeds."

At first both North and South vigorously opposed the proposition to enlist Negroes in the Civil War. An uprising of the slaves was feared and all shuddered at its contemplation. The fear was akin to that of both Boers and British in South Africa over the threatened uprising of the blacks, and that of the pioneer as he thought of the stirring up of the Indians. General Wetzel tendered his resignation as soon as General Butler assigned black soldiers to his brigade. However, he subsequently rescinded his action and those same colored troops covered him with glory at Point Hudson. They were the first to ride into Richmond, crying to the Negroes in the town, "We have come to set you free."

At the close of the war a company of Negro soldiers was marched westward from Fort Leavenworth over the old Santa Fe trail to the "great desert." They were a laughing stock; were jeered by all. White officers were ashamed of their commands; the Indians derisively called them "buffalo soldiers." At Fort Craig, N. M., away in the desert a detachment was ordered on guard duty. Trou-

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ble was feared. It came. The old guard was composed of veteran Indian fighters who had faced dangers of all kinds and never refused to obey orders. The colored men marched past them once, twice, thrice and no presentation of arms. Disciplinary measures were resorted to. Again and again these veterans were hung up by the thumbs. Released and given their muskets the men clasped their guns tightly and not a muscle moved in salute. The officers were in despair. Here was mutiny which would not be suppressed and the sympathy of the officers was with the men. Argument prevailed where force failed. A compromise was effected. It was finally agreed that in the salute the soldiers were honoring the uniform of the United States army and not the man in it. This was the end of that trouble.

At another place the black soldiers revolted and entered into a conspiracy to kill the white officers and carry away their wives as slaves.

It is impossible to narrate the ignorance, helplessness and childlikeness of faith of, as well as the prejudice against, the Negroes enrolled in the regular army when it was reduced to a peace footing. For a long time the white officers had to do all the Negroes' correspondence and for many years no Negro could be found with education sufficient to be troop clerk. The tasks of the white officers, however, were well repaid by the prompt obedience to orders and the affectionate regard paid them by their black soldiers.

Out of the conditions of 1867 has come a black soldiery, until, at least, the recent event at Brownsville, the pride of the land. The colored recruit is now a most trustworthy soldier. He loves his uniform and obedience to orders; he carries a military bearing, with head erect and chest well out. He keeps his buttons shining, his gun immaculate, and will follow anywhere his officer's lead.

It was a Negro regiment, the Ninth Cavalry, that surprised the country a few years ago by reporting not a deserter in twelve months. An army officer commenting on this pronounced it "an unheard and perhaps undreamed of record." This regiment and its brother-regiment, the Tenth, scouted in New Mexico, Texas, Colorado and Kansas for years against hostile Indians and acquitted themselves honorably. When General George A. Forsythe and his detachment of fifty scouts were surrounded by seven hundred Indians on the Republican River it was a troop of the Tenth that rescued him. When Major Thornburg's command was almost destroyed by the Utes in 1879 it was a troop of the Ninth that reached him, losing all its horses in the attempt. The latter regiment alone took part in sixty Indian fights between 1868 and 1890. It was the Tenth Cavalry that recently defended our people again in danger on the frontier by rounding up the Utes. At the very time that Senator Tillman was excoriating the Negro from a public platform in Chicago the faithful black soldier was doing yeoman's service for the people and country whom the Senator thought ought to deprive him of his civil rights.

It is a matter of record that when the United States paymaster was attacked by robbers, May 11, 1899, his colored escort fought so gallantly that every soldier was awarded a medal of honor or certificate of merit. In a fight against the Apaches in 1881 Mose Williams saved, at the risk of his life and those of his men, Lieutenant Valois, and was given a medal of honor by common consent. Five of the medal-of-honor men now in the service are Negroes, while fifteen others have certificates of merit given for conspicuous acts of bravery.

In the Battle of Santiago the black regiments added more glory to their race. The four regiments there engaged won praise from all sides. From the very beginning the Negro troops were in the front and contributed largely to the general success. The color-bearer of the Third Cavalry was shot down. The color-sergeant of the Tenth snatched up the banner and bore it with his own to the front. The tradition had been that colored troops, fight as fiercely as they might, would fight only when led by white officers. That tradition was smashed, for in several cases where the troops lost their white officers the colored sergeants took command and acquitted themselves with great distinction. Several of the non-commissioned were made commissioned officers for special acts of bravery.

In the Philippine Islands the work was

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particularly trying and tempting. Several white soldiers lost their equilibrium and two paid the penalty of their desertion with their lives. General Burt praised his men and declared that their conduct distinctly proved that the American Negroes are as law-abiding as any race in the world. The Tenth Cavalry had on its rolls during the entire twelve months one hundred and six men ready for duty at all times and never sick a day. None of them was ever court-martialed. No white regiment approached this record.

A NEW FORM OF ITINERANCY
Planning the next trip and washing dishes!

The recent trouble at Brownsville is not a new thing in the military annals of America, though the action of the President and the subsequent senatorial notoriety mark it as without precedent, and will cause it to be remembered, no doubt, to the detriment of the black soldier. It is but an excrescence upon the surface and not characteristic of the colored trooper. White troops have ere this gone on rampages, and a perusal of the war records will show such to be none too infrequent.

The action of the President was probably right. The body of the country will, no doubt, think it so. But let us not despair of the Negro soldier. He has made his record.

Churches on Wheels

By W. G. Fitz-Gerald

PASTORS know well the difficulty of getting sluggish people to come to church or chapel. For some years the problem has been solved in England by a strange "fleet" of "churches on wheels," or gospel wagons, seventy or eighty in number. They go out into the highways and byways of the country, reaching populations which otherwise would be neglected spiritually, having neither church, chapel nor Sunday-school.

The fleet is manned by 180 hard-working evangelists, some of them excellent instrumentalists; men of tact in dealing with all sorts and conditions of people. Each wagon carries a collecting box in the form of a tiny facsimile of itself. A generous supply of religious and healthy secular literature is taken on board, and last year the rolling churches sold more than $25,000 worth of it.

At first these gypsy vans were looked upon with suspicion or amusement. Old ladies regarded the evangelists as artful peddlers hawking spectacles that were no good! Men would come up with curiosity and gratitude written on their faces and murmur a grateful: "Young man, I'm mighty glad *some one* has come to amuse us at last. Say, what time does the performance begin?"

Each van has a definite route assigned to it, and even where it is perfectly well known, its advent is looked for eagerly by grown-ups and children alike. An inspiring service is held on the village green and an informal Sunday-school under the gnarled branches of some giant oak. You might think it an entertaining and healthy life for the crew, and so it is during the summer months. But it is a vastly different matter when the icy gales begin to blow and country roads are a foot deep in gluey mud.

No "motive power" is provided, for it is understood that each amiable farmer will lend a horse after service to take the church on wheels along to its next stopping place. And on these journeys many

A CHURCH ON WHEELS

The domestic duties of the evangelists are often lightened by gifts from kindly housewives

adventures are recorded. Perhaps the queerest was while a van was crossing the Avon. It stuck in the mud, and in spite of all efforts to haul it into security three tides swept over its glossy green top before it could be extricated.

Each of these remarkable gospel wagons costs $105, and the first of them appeared nearly ten years ago among the fruit and hop pickers of Southern England. In summer time they are not backward in appearing on crowded seaside beaches, and even on race-courses, where they attract much attention among a class of people who certainly never enter an ordinary church or chapel.

The interior of each is charmingly bright and clean. The little windows are draped with muslin curtains looped back with ribbon, and the tiny interior is a marvel of lockers in polished wood, sleeping bunks, library and miniature kitchen. Often enough, however, the busy evangelists have no time to prepare a meal. But the good women of the parish never fail them; and besides the humble stew or dainty cake, an opulent pheasant may make its appearance, with home-made butter, new-laid eggs and honey fresh from the hive.

The interior of each van measures only ten feet in length by six feet wide, and six feet four inches high. Just outside the front door is a platform which serves as a pulpit during the service. Last year, including the vans traveling in Ireland and Wales, more than forty thousand services were held, thousands of cottages visited, and their inmates brightened up by the hustling young evangelists, who are the life and soul of this movement.

These youths frequently travel all night in their rolling churches, and great is the amazement in remote hamlet or village community when the children going to school rush back amazed to tell their mothers "The circus has come!" They feel certain that the gospel wagon, brightly painted with texts, is merely the forerunner of a gorgeous procession of cars, with the inevitable accompaniment of camels, elephants, lions and tigers!

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The Cost of Technical Errors

By George Ethelbert Walsh

"TECHNICAL errors cost a lot in this age of great industrial undertakings. They have crippled more than one large firm, and ruined others. The technical expert who can go over the work of others and ferret out any possible errors is the coming man to command a big salary. He is needed to-day in large manufacturing and contracting concerns as never before. His services are of the utmost value in the business world."

The speaker, the head of one of the largest electrical manufacturing and contracting companies in this country, emphasized his remark by pointing to a loss of $50,000 entailed by a technical error of engineers who had made estimates on a large contract.

"That error was made by a good engineer," he continued, "one who has done a lot of work for us. But in the rush of detail work he overlooked it, and the error went on without detection until it caused us this loss. It was simply a miscalculation in engineering design, and one outside of the province of expert accountants and bookkeepers. No one except a technical engineer could have discovered it. Now what I mean by a technical expert is a man who can go over the mass of figures and drawings of any engineering department and pick out flaws in them. He need not have originality or designing ability, but he must be a sleuth in picking up mistakes. As a rule a set of plans are usually studied by a number of engineers before they are accepted, but as each engineer is a specialist in his own department he is not hunting for mistakes in other departments. Thus it is that technical errors creep in, and they prove costly mistakes."

No man is infallible. Even a De Lesseps made so many technical errors in planning for the digging of the Panama Canal that his figures were a good many millions of dollars out of the way. In the series of investigations and estimations carried on by the experts of our own government many blunders were committed, and world-famous engineers differed in their estimates by several million dollars. It is the common talk among engineers that a single technical error of only a fraction of a cent in removing a cubic yard of earth made a difference in one of the early estimates of two million dollars. So important is it to eliminate all such technical errors in great undertakings that the figures and estimates of the engineers were gone over dozens of times by experts before the Panama contract was accepted.

What is true of the construction of a Panama canal is equally true of other important engineering and manufacturing undertakings, but in a lesser degree. Many illustrations of this fact can be quoted in the business world, although as a rule such mistakes are kept quiet. A big firm does not advertise the mistakes of its engineers. The technical department of any responsible firm is organized as carefully as possible, but occasionally errors creep in and cause dismay and loss if not detected in time. The need of a technical expert is thus becoming more imperative in many lines. Such an expert commands a good salary, for upon him the responsibility of the figures and estimates finally rests.

When all the engineers' reports and estimates are in, they are turned over to the expert who goes over them with the obvious purpose of finding errors. He is hunting for mistakes, and he is disappointed if he does not find them. He is a sort of human sleuth watching for incriminating tracks on every page. He is not ferreting out a criminal or wilful deceiver, but is simply hunting for technical errors that are liable to happen in the most unexpected places.

In a recent contract for a large steel bridge by a prominent bridge building company, the engineer in charge of the steel contract made a slight miscalculation in the number of pounds required for each foot of girders and rails. It was an insignificant error taken by itself, but as the amount of metal for the whole bridge figured up to tens of thousands of tons the slight technical error made a difference of over $100,000 in the final contract. The bridge had to be built with this loss to face, and while the company gave no public intimation of its mistake there was a good deal of chagrin and suppressed excitement within the inner circle of officers. The error was one that a technical expert might have detected, but the different engineers who went over the

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plans and estimates of the contract were too ready to assume that each expert in his department knew what he was doing. There was no systematic hunt for errors by one who was employed for no other purpose. Since then the bridge company has employed a technical expert who goes over every set of plans and figures submitted. His salary of $10,000 a year is money saved to the company, for one such error as mentioned would pay for his services for ten years.

In a recent railroad contract for the excavation for a tunnel in the West over two million dollars were involved. Before the contract was awarded the engineers went over their figures time and again, and the supervising engineer studied them as a whole. It seemed as if every precaution had been taken to avoid mistakes. The plans were accepted and the order was about to go in when the engineer in charge of the rock blasting rushed into the office and asked to see his figures again. He turned white as a sheet, and finally blurted out:

"This will ruin me, but I must do it. See here, I have made a mistake of half a cent on the cost of removing each cubic yard of rock. I don't know how I did it, or why it wasn't discovered before. But I'm thankful I'm in time to save the company the loss."

It was a small error, only half a cent a cubic yard, but on the contract it would have made a difference of enough to pay the engineer's salary a dozen times over. He was not discharged, but for the next few years his figures will receive careful scrutiny and study.

"The average engineer is usually accurate in his mathematical calculations," remarked a prominent railroad engineer, "but there is such a mass of detail figuring on a big job that he delegates much of it to subordinates. These can calculate stresses when data are given, and estimate cubic contents of any given space. Yet if he does not want to make bad errors he is often forced to go over his subordinate's figures or employ others to check them up. Small technical errors consequently loom up big in the business world to-day. Our engineering and manufacturing enterprises are growing so big that a slight miscalculation may mean the ruin of an operating company. I know of one large contracting firm which went into bankruptcy simply through one single technical error of this class. The loss was too heavy for the firm to carry, and they quietly went to pieces after performing one of the biggest jobs of the year. Sometimes in accepting the bid of a contractor where glaring mistakes have been found some charitable allowances are made, but obviously there is no legal reason why the contractor should not be held to his agreement. It is his duty to discover the technical errors before the contract is signed."

The duties of technical experts are manifold. They may be called upon to perform work which it would appear an ordinary clerk could do, and at another time the most difficult technical duties will fall to their lot. A comprehensive knowledge of a wide range of subjects is therefore necessary, and above all a habit of accuracy and ability to find out errors. The technical expert of a large firm engaged in manufacturing power machinery of various types explained his position after this fashion:

"When we have a big job under consideration, plans and specifications are drawn up tentatively. Then subordinates are given different parts of the detail work to do, which finally comes up for consideration by the experts of different departments. There are a great many minds employed in making up the plans and estimates, but a consulting board of engineers weave the different parts together. I am not supposed to be a member of this consulting board, but come in as a total outsider. The plans are turned over to me for scrutiny. I examine them first as a whole, and then go over the figuring rapidly. If everything appears all right, I go back over the heads of the different departments and examine the work of the subordinates. Sometimes it is in the drafting-room that I find the mistake. Here some draftsman has failed to follow directions, and has made some slight technical error which alters matters considerably. Or again some young engineer's assistant has made a bad break in the application of a short rule in calculation. The whole set of plans are thus affected. The plans are never finally approved until I O. K. them, and then the firm considers itself safe in going ahead."

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BOOKS AND READING

JAMES FORD RHODES

A Business Man's Triumph in Scholarship

By Frank Maloy Anderson,
PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

TWENTY-FIVE years ago Mr. James Ford Rhodes was engaged in the steel manufacturing business at Cleveland. He had already built up a comfortable fortune. His business gave promise of even larger returns in the future. Apparently he had only to go ahead in order to achieve for himself what is supposed to be the great American ambition, a recognized place among the men of large fortune and of correspondingly large influence. But his ambition lay in another direction. Abandoning active business pursuits, while still a young man, he set to work to prepare

* HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES, 1850-1877. The Macmillan Company, New York. Seven volumes, 1896-1906. $2.50 net each.

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himself for the execution of one of the most difficult and exacting tasks in the whole realm of scholarship. This was nothing less ambitious than the preparation of a sober, judicial, exhaustive, yet popular history of the great crisis through which the American people had just passed, one of the most significant episodes in the history of the human race.

The boldness of this undertaking can be more fully appreciated now that the task has been successfully accomplished. In point of direct preparation, Mr. Rhodes had enjoyed very little of what is now commonly regarded as the indispensable training for dealing with the enormous mass of materials which must be sifted. He was not even a college graduate. His conception of history and the methods which must be employed in its exploitation came exclusively from independent reading of the great historians, from travel, and from a deep interest in public affairs. With him, if ever, the impulse and the ability would seem to have originated within himself.

Once launched upon his undertaking, Mr. Rhodes proceeded with great caution in its execution. More than ten years passed before the appearance of the first volume. Though having ample means at his disposal, Mr. Rhodes availed himself of the service of assistants to only a very slight extent and then only to sustain and strengthen his own conclusions. During the progress of the work he sought and profited by association with the trained historical scholars of the United States and Great Britain. Recognition came from many individual historical scholars with the appearance of his first volume, while the third brought their highest collective compliment in his election to the presidency of the American Historical Association. Some half dozen or more universities, including Harvard and Yale, have bestowed upon him their highest honorary degrees.

The distinguishing characteristics of Mr. Rhodes's (just completed) History are its breadth of conception, thoroughness of investigation, impartiality, lucidity, and vividness. The central theme is the history of the Civil War. But that conflict, as Mr. Rhodes conceives it, was not limited to the four years between 1861 and 1865, nor was it a mere combat between contending armies. It was a life and death struggle between diverse social systems which began more than a decade before the first shot was fired and did not really terminate until more than fifteen years after the last Confederate had laid down his arms. For an adequate account of the conflict, a description of the economic, intellectual, religious, and social conditions of the two great sections of the Union is as necessary as the narrative of political events. To all of these matters, accordingly, Mr. Rhodes gives much attention, presenting them in their relation to the conflict of arms.

For such a period no historian can possibly read more than a small fraction of the materials for history which have been preserved. Thoroughness, then, consists in a discriminating selection of the most valuable materials and a careful use of those selected. The text, and still more conclusively the notes, show that scarcely anything of importance in book form has been overlooked. Equally good judgment has been shown in the choice of materials from magazines and newspapers. Pamphlets and manuscripts have by no means been neglected. While the History as a whole rests upon Mr. Rhodes's own investigation of the sources, he has made excellent use of any really good work done by other scholars wherever such work exists.

Most difficult to attain, and, next to accuracy, the most essential of all the qualities required of a historian is impartiality. If this quality is rare even in the treatment of remote periods, what should we expect for a period so recent and so marked by deep and abiding prejudices? Of course, Mr. Rhodes has not attained complete impartiality. A discriminating reader may here and there discover passages which appear biased. Nevertheless, it is a safe prediction that one of the most deep and abiding impressions which the reader of the History will get is that it is the work of one whose only object is the discovery of the truth and that he has attained it in a degree seldom reached by historians.

Mr. Rhodes's style is attractive, but in an unusual and almost unique way. There is no attempt at fine writing, no special felicity of phrase, no extraordinary power of graphic description. Its

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lucidity is the quality that appeals to the reader.

Mr. Rhodes never simply transplants from his documents to his text. Everything has been visualized before its incorporation into his narrative. The result is that for the reader who will coöperate with the historian by an exercise of the imaginative faculty, the great personalities, the trying situations, and the peculiar features of the life of the period live again.

At least another generation must pass before a final verdict can be passed upon the permanent value of Mr. Rhodes's work. Time must supply a more perfect perspective and the work of future scholars a more certain basis of comparison. He would be a rash man who would venture to anticipate that verdict. One thing, however, is even now certain. The History is one of the distinctly great achievements of the historical scholarship of this generation. It is one upon which American scholarship may well challenge comparison with the best that Europe has recently produced.

History and Biography

Moliere, A Biography. By H. C. Chatfield-Taylor. New York: Duffield & Company, 1906. Pp. 446. $3 net.

Mr. Taylor has been particularly happy in choosing for his work a study of *le grand comique* of the seventeenth century. The biographer of Molière is confronted with peculiar difficulties. The authenticated facts of the poet's life are so few, the sympathy which a careful study of his plays evokes is so inevitable that the temptation to draw upon one's imagination becomes very great and it is difficult not to use the colors mixed by legend and tradition in painting his portrait. Mr. Taylor has been careful and conscientious in the use of material and has succeeded in presenting a very living picture of the times as a background with Molière as the central figure; a Molière not too idealized but sinning and suffering and laughing with the rest of humanity. It is this background which is, from an artistic standpoint, the best part of the book.

As the biography proceeds Mr. Taylor gets on a more familiar footing with his subject and indulges in many a friendly dig at Molière's foibles. Indeed Mr. Taylor's fondness for dramatic phrases leads him sometimes, though not often, dangerously near unintentional humor. This familiarity of attitude lends a jauntiness that is not out of place, to the chapter in which Molière and his friends are described to us. We would wish that a little more had been said of the after-glory of Molière. The final chapter of the volume ends abruptly and we turn the page hoping to find something more to prove to us that recognition came with the years.

The division of Molière's comedies into the five classes is interesting and is logically maintained as the several plays are analyzed. The outlines of the plays are a pleasure to read because of their simplicity and clearness. The blank verse translations are also exceedingly well done, and passages such as may be found on pages 158 or 269 give the atmosphere and spirit of the original. All who are interested in the spread of the study of French literature owe a debt of gratitude to Mr. Taylor for this work, which he has done with such intelligent comprehension and with affectionate sympathy.

The Wonders of the Colorado Desert (Southern California). By George Wharton James. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 2 volumes. Vol. I, pp. xliv, 270; Vol. II, pp. xiv, 271 to 547. $5 net.

There is no man who knows the great Southwest like George Wharton James. Its legends, its people, its mountains and its deserts are his familiar friends. It is impossible to review in detail the two volumes in which he makes his readers feel that the great Southwest is something more than a mere geographic term. But he accomplishes the feat. Mr. James's powers of description are here seen at their best, while his historical references are of such a nature as to make the work almost a guide book for the visitor. The illustrations are exceptionally numerous and its entire mechanical make-up is altogether worthy of the region and of the text. Altogether it is a book which every man who wishes to know the country in its length and breadth will want to possess.

Japan as it was and is. A handbook of Old Japan, by Richard Hildreth, edited with supplementary notes by Ernest W. Clement, author of a Handbook of Modern Japan. Introduction by William Elliott Griffis. A. C. McClurg & Co., 1906. 2 vols. $3 net.

The new Japan can not be understood without a study of the Old Japan. The enduring classic on the latter subject is by the American historian, Richard Hildreth, in this fourth and revised edition of the work before us. Historically and logically the fascinating story is told by the author, of the rise and development of the Japanese people, from their rude beginnings to the year 1861. From credible histories and personal eyewitnesses the successive steps of their progress are clearly outlined. The political, social and religious conflicts they experienced are graphically told. It will be seen that the main characteristics now exhibited by them are the same which were noticed three and four hundred years ago. The early missionaries dwelt upon the pride, the self-respect, the haughty magnanimity, the sense of personal honor, the absolute contempt of death which they displayed. Other early writers termed them "as civil, polite and curious as any nation in the world." Some, a little later, declared that "the behavior of the Japanese from the meanest countrymen or lord is

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such that the Empire might be called a school of civility and good manners."

The work is profusely and beautifully illustrated and comes in a dress of binding and presswork fully suited to its interest and importance.

We have been accustomed so long to see history through the eyes of soldiers that it is a pleasure to have our vision corrected by such a book as Archer Butler Hulbert's "Pilots of the Republic: The Romance of the Pioneer Promoter in the Middle West" (McClurg, $1.50 net). For the author has taken his title in a liberal sense, and missionaries, statesmen, adventurers, and explorers are all "promoters" in his eyes. The work of the ax is placed higher than that of the sword in the opening chapter; Washington's investments in western lands, which made him the richest man in America, Zeisberger and Marcus Whitman, Henry Clay and the great government road, the builders of the Erie canal, Astor and the fur trade, these and many more names tell better than the formal histories how and why the West was opened for settlement.

No biography can be called successful in which there is a manifest disparity between the strength and grasp of the person chosen for a subject and the biographer himself. That famous chief of the Apache Indians, Geronimo, was more than once at war with two great republics, and it was only by the combination, through diplomatic negotiation, of the United States of America and the United States of Mexico that this chieftain and his handful of followers were reduced to final subjection. In this captivity S. M. Barrett, superintendent of education in Lawton, Oklahoma, found him, and after some fencing persuaded him to furnish the materials which make up "Geronimo's Story of His Life" (Duffield, $1.50 net). The result is rather pitiful. Geronimo certainly has in him certain elements that his bitterest enemies conceded to approach greatness, but details of his career are here made to appear petty and inconsequential. In literary hands the result might have been better.

"The First Forty Years of Washington Society" (Scribner's, $2.50 net), is a collection of the family letters of Mrs. Samuel Harrison Smith, who was Margaret Bayard before her marriage, edited by Gaillard Hunt from the collection of J. Henley Smith, the brisk and sensible correspondent's grandson. Mr. Smith, member of a distinguished Philadelphia family, established the *National Intelligencer* in 1800, when 28 years old, just after the federal government had moved to the present national capital. He married his second cousin, the writer here, soon after, she coming from the distinguished Delaware family. The sources of information from husband and wife are fully utilized in these letters, which were written without thought of possible publicity, to members of the Bayard and Smith families during the entire period of formation, the last being dated in 1842. The editing has been conscientious, there are numerous portraits and scenes for illustrations, and an index has been provided. The book is worthy a place in history, general and literary.

One hopes for a great deal when reading in conjunction the name of such a writer as Edgar Saltus and such a title as "Historia Amoris" (Mitchell Kennerley, $1.50 net). The sub-title of the work proclaims it to be "A History of Love, Ancient and Modern." But it turns out to be a sort of hack-writer's scrap basket, into which have been thrown bits and shreds of curious and inconsecutive learning at random.

Literature and the Drama

Dr. Guido Biagi, Librarian of the Laurentian Library of Florence, is the editor of the new historically illustrated edition of George Eliot's "Romola" (A. C. McClurg & Co. Two volumes. $3 net). In the introduction he investigates the sources and historical foundations of the story. A discovery that Doctor Biagi recently made in the old Magliabecchian Library of the receipts for the books George Eliot read in 1861 while getting material for her romance furnishes the nucleus of an interesting account of the vast amount of reading and archæological research undertaken in its preparation. Nearly all of the one hundred and sixty illustrations are from photographs taken especially for the edition.

To one unacquainted with the work of Walter Pater, but who cares to find out just what appeal it would make to his personal taste in literature, the new volume in the English Men of Letters series (Macmillan Co., seventy-five cents net) by Arthur C. Benson can be heartily recommended. It would be hard to think of a man better suited to write on Pater's work than Mr. Benson who, it will be remembered, turned out to be the anonymous author of "Upton Letters." His monograph is written without hero-worship, and with many well chosen quotations. It is an admirable critical estimate of the delicate, imaginative soul that left such an impression on English letters.

A pleasant introduction to Henry C. Shelley's "Literary By-Paths in Old England" (Little, Brown & Co., $3 net), explains the significance of "by-paths" as those which avoid the dusty roads and lead the wanderer over verdant meadows or amid the still recesses of verdant woodlands which best afford opportunities for quiet meditation. This gives pertinence to and prepares the reader for the meanderings in England, Scotland, and Ireland which follow the footsteps of Spenser, Sidney, Penn, Gray, Gilbert White, Goldsmith, Burns, Keats, Carlyle, and Tom Hood, and end in the historical and literary shades of royal Winchester. Abundant illustrations from photographic and other sources, facsimiles of signatures and documents, title-pages of first editions, portraits, dwelling places and burying places bring recollections of the past clearly home. It will be seen that the obvious has been avoided in the choice of subjects to a certain extent, and the treatment is even freer from the trite and usual.

It is a masterly series of essays that Sidney Lee has written for his new book, "Shakespeare and the Modern Stage," the first of them lending its title, not with entire appropriateness, to the volume. Perhaps the most valuable of them, to a layman, is the inquiry into the value of the oral tradition surrounding the poet, which is a thing of real moment on the stage to-day. Mr. Lee shows that it is based on sound recollections

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of the man himself, strained now through many generations, yet a vital thing nevertheless. The book contains more than one plea for dramatic representations of Shakespeare which are a reasonable compromise in expense and frequency between the bareness of the dramatist's own day and the efflorescence of, say, the late Sir Henry Irving, and Mr. Benson's stage effects are duly praised. The plea for an endowed theater is a strong one, as was to be expected. One pleasant paper sets forth the opinion Mr. Pepys had of the greatest of play-writers, which was amusingly uncomplimentary. Altogether, the new volume adds something to the facts in its author's excellent life, and much to our understanding of its subject. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, $2 net.)

In "Lords and Lovers, and Other Dramas" (Scribner's, $1.50 net), Mrs. Olive Tilford Dargan has done notable work. The opening play, which lends its title to the book, carries on the best traditions of English dramatic verse. It is concerned with the reign of Henry III. of England, immediately after his assuming the kingship. Though possessed of acting quality to the full and carefully constructed, the play is divided into two parts, each with four acts, which makes it far too long for modern uses. It is followed by "The Shepherd," the scene in contemporary Russia, wherein an old peasant holds out against revolution and reprisal, convinced that peace alone can win the true victories of this world. It is in prose and, though so far removed from the other in every regard, is hardly less good of its kind. As final proof of her versatility, the third play, "The Siege," deals with Syracuse under Dionysius the Younger, is in blank verse of the highest worth, and adds a tragedy in five acts to the pages of English literature. The book is one to be sought and read by admirers of the best writing possible.

Lovers of George Eliot will welcome the unique light shed on her life and especially on her literary materials by her cousin, Mr. William Mottram, in "The True Story of George Eliot." (A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.) He identifies a number of characters such as Adam Bede, Dinah Morris and Mrs. Poyser; in fact, they were all his relatives. He describes the villages and even houses which the author but thinly disguised in her stories. In addition to this interesting material there is a chapter on her relations with George H. Lewes, defending her action, and one on her personal religious faith. Illustrated with reproductions of many good photographs this is a valuable addition to the George Eliot corner of the library.

Philosophy and Religion

Christian Theology in Outline. By William Adams Brown. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50 net.

Professor Brown is the theological son of W. N. Clarke. To be sure his volume shows the influence of current tendencies in the philosophy of religion and to some extent is controlled by a historical method which plays but a small rôle in Doctor Clarke's work, and it also shows somewhat more specifically the influence of the Ritschlian school. It has further a more formal construction which will be an advantage for those who wish to use it as a class-room manual. But none the less, as the author generously implies, it is a projection of Doctor Clarke a little further into the really serious theological thinking of the past five or ten years.

Professor Brown's positions are essentially mediating and do not display a methodology as distinct as could be desired. Too frequently a delightful literary style and sincere religious spirit are made to do service at points which need rigorous scientific treatment. His positions are really those of orthodoxy manipulated in a gentlemanly acquaintance with radicalism on the one side and pulpit needs on the other. The genuinely evangelistic note of the New Testament centering around the resurrection of Jesus is not prominent and in its stead a quasi-sociological conception of the kingdom of God does service. His discussion of the atonement is an appealing exposition of the spirit of Jesus as related to Christian experience, while his discussion of the saving work of Christ as a whole lacks that vigorous treatment which older orthodoxy on the one side and a thorough-going method on the other can give.

The volume possesses genuine value, however, as an exposition of the doctrinal content of Christian experience. Indeed it is not only valuable but actually winsome at this point, and the theological teacher owes Professor Brown a distinct debt of gratitude for the skill with which he sets forth the doctrinal significance of that which must ever be one of the chief sources of the preacher's message. The volume, both because of its defect of method as well as for its excellences of statement and spirit, is sure to be useful as a halfway house for the man who finds difficulty in accepting traditional dogma at its face value, but who at the same time is not ready to adopt the position to which a thorough-going methodology must lead him. It may in brief be described as a conservative reworking of orthodoxy by a man under the influence of Ritschlianism.

Griffith John: The Story of Fifty Years in China. By R. Wardlaw Thompson. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. Pp. xvi, 544. $2 net.

This is a volume of extraordinary interest from almost any point of view. Griffith John is to-day one of the most influential Christian missionaries in China. He has been counsellor of viceroys and has had his influence in many of the forward steps taken by the Chinese empire. He was intimately associated with some of the leaders in the Taiping rebellion, and his statements ought to go far toward giving the world a better understanding of that attempt at a Chinese Utopia. But Griffith John seems to be singularly indifferent to political matters. His life has been given to evangelization and education. In this particular the volume is valuable as showing the progress of what might be called scientific missionary effort. It could be wished that every person who belittles missions could read Griffith John's sermons and letters. The volume has not the picturesque elements of some mis-

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sionary biographies, but it is a cross section of the development of missionary policy. One rises from it with the renewed conviction that the foreign mission field affords the average man vastly larger scope for building his life into national development, to say nothing of religious history, than any other field of activity.

It is an encouraging sign to see that the output of theological books is growing and that the interest in such books is becoming increasingly practical. This latter excellence belongs particularly to the exceedingly thoughtful volume of D. S. Cairns's "Christianity in the Modern World" (A. C. Armstrong & Son, $1.25 net). The volume is really a discussion of Jesus's teaching as to the fatherhood of God, the new life, the kingdom of God, and the bearing of Christianity upon the modern world. It is written from the point of view of the man who is in sympathy with sociology and who sees that the gospel must have a very much wider sweep than the salvation of the individual. This breadth of treatment, this sympathy with the modern world, this belief in the social significance of the gospel as it is in the New Testament, brings the volume up into touch with the nobler tendencies of the historical school of theology on the one side and the developing social mind on the ether. However one may differ from certain of its positions, it is to be commended to every clergyman who wishes to see the practical bearing of current theological thinking upon the development of a new world this side of heaven.

James Mackaye's "The Politics of Utility" (Little, Brown & Co., 50 cents net) is more specifically described by its subtitle, "The Technology of Happiness — Applied," and it is the third book of his greater work "The Economy of Happiness," and its sequel. It will, therefore, be best understood by those who have read the larger book, but it contains enough in the way of introduction and definitions to be self-sufficient, nevertheless. Briefly stated, his system takes into account the sentient factors in economic production as differing in their fundamental nature from the non-sentient factors, such as machinery and materials, and in placing happiness as the great end to be secured for the human element, just as production is now held to be the sole end. In another aspect, this specific section of the book is a plain "common-sense" application to the United States of the principles of socialism.

Lovers of curious books will appreciate "The Pilgrim's Staff," an anthology of poems of spiritual import, selected by FitzRoy Carrington and published in early English style by Fox, Duffield & Company, New York (net 75 cents). A number of the poems are familiar to us as the great hymns of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Fiction

"The King's Divinity" was written by Dolores Bacon. It is an inconsequential book dealing with the love of a young noble, who is about to be king of one of those mysterious kingdoms on the borderland of Europe, for a rich American girl. It is a moderately interesting story with literary pretensions to be judged leniently. (Henry Holt & Co., $1.50).

A very entertaining comedy is the collection of letters by E. V. Lucas, to which he has given the rather cryptic title, "Listener's Lure" (The Macmillan Company, $1.50). So far as there is any plot in the volume it centers about the love of a literary gentleman for his ward, who is also his amanuensis. The literary gentleman in a moment of altruism and self-ignorance sends his ward away to be the private secretary of an old lady with a passion for rationalistic propaganda. There the ward, who is of course a most delightful young woman, meets a variety of men and has to decline a number of proposals of marriage. In the course of time the literary gentleman comes to a realizing sense of the situation, and the book closes as every one who has read the first page knew it would.

"Jewel Weed" (The Bobbs-Merrill Co., $1.50), by Miss Alice Ames Winter, is a story which seems in the reading to have "happened" in quite the sense in which life itself runs along, with no marked sequence in its events. A nice young fellow falls in love with the pretty face of a girl in every possible sense his inferior. He marries her, and his people make the best of it; the girl comes pretty near making the worst of it. Back of this slender and rather trite story is an atmosphere of real life in a thriving western city, apparently either St. Paul or Minneapolis. There is a nice sense of humor in the book, moreover, and it has real merits.

"Pansy" (Mrs. G. R. Alden) has written another book about the doings of a character already well known to her hosts of youthful readers, calling it "Ester Ried's Namesake" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., $1.50). The namesake is the daughter of a home missionary from the West, who goes to an eastern college. The real force and strong common sense of the girl throw her out of accord more than once with her new teachers and surroundings, but the same qualities enable her to win in the end.

E. Phillips Oppenheim, as we are glad to testify, knows how to tell a story. His skill does not fail him in "The Malefactor" (Little, Brown & Co., $1.50). It is the account of a man who has been sent to prison by a woman's false testimony and who after his sentence returns to society determined to do as much harm as possible. Mr. Oppenheim makes him out as bad as a gentlemanly author can and leaves one to infer that he was a good deal worse. But at the end he is redeemed by his love for a beautiful girl. The difficulty with the story is that the man's weakness is theatric.

In "Doubloons," by Eden Phillpotts and Arnold Bennett, a hidden treasure of Spanish gold plays a relatively subordinate part and even love is scarcely a factor in the startling adventures that befell a penniless young gentleman who was fairly forced to become an amateur detective. He is baffled by an inhuman monster and by him carried off to the West India Islands. But all ends as such a tale ought to end. With all the heavy drafts it makes on the imagination, the characters of Philip and Giralda are exceedingly well drawn. (McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.)

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Appointments.—January 15.—Nominations of Postmaster-General Cortelyou to be Secretary of the Treasury, and James R. Garfield to be Secretary of the Interior, of George von L. Meyer to be Postmaster-General and of Herbert Knox Smith to be Commissioner of Corporations, confirmed by the Senate.

Banking. — January 15. — A special federal grand jury found a true bill against John R. Walsh, charging him, in thirty-five counts, with the misapplication of the funds of the Chicago National Bank.

Casualties.—January 19.—An explosion in a car on the Big Four Railroad wrecked a passenger train at Sandford, Indiana, and caused the death of twenty-nine persons and the injury of thirty-one.

—January 20.—A terrific gale did $1,500,000 damage to shipping at Buffalo. Two lives lost; $300,000 worth of docks at the lumber market at North Tonawanda, New York, destroyed.

—January 23.—Twenty miners lost their lives as a result of an explosion which occurred in the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company's coal mine near Primero, twenty miles west of Trinidad, Colorado.

—January 29.—Seventy-three men killed by explosion in the Stuart coal mine, near Fayetteville, West Virginia.

—February 4.—Twenty-five or thirty miners killed by an explosion at the Davis Coal and Coke Company's mine No. 25, at Thomas, near Elkins, West Virginia.

Congress. — January 18. — An amendment to the Legislative Bill, increasing the salary of the Vice-President, Speaker and Cabinet members to $12,000 and of Congressmen to $7,500, adopted by the House.

—January 21.—The House passed the Senate bill to prohibit corporations from making money contributions to political campaigns.

—January 24.—The House voted to abolish all the pension agencies throughout the country, eighteen in number, and centralize the payment of pensions in the city of Washington. The pension appropriation bill, carrying $138,000,000 in round numbers, passed....The Senate adopted the Salary Amendment.

Deaths. — January 14. — Anthony Koslowski, bishop of the Independent Polish Catholic Church.

—January 20.—Josiah Flynt Willard, sociological writer, pen name "Josiah Flint," aged thirty-eight.

—January 24.—Russell A. Alger, United States Senator from Michigan, and Secretary of War in President McKinley's cabinet, aged seventy.

—January 25.—Isabella Beecher Hooker, philanthropist, aged eighty-four.

—January 26.—Henry Martyn Field, minister, author and editor, aged eighty-four.

—January 28.—Wilbur S. Jackman, dean of the University of Chicago elementary school, aged fifty-four.

— February 2. — Samuel Beckley Holabird, brigadier-general U. S. A., aged eighty.

— February 6. — Albert Kautz, rear-admiral U. S. N.

Education.—February 1.—Mrs. Russell Sage gave $1,000,000 to the Rennselaer Polytechnic Institute of Troy, New York, to establish the Russell Sage School of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering.

— February 7. — John D. Rockefeller gave $32,000,000 to the General Education Board, for the promotion of educational work in the United States.

—February 8.—More than $1,500,000 of the estate of Wallace C. Andrews, of New York, bequeathed to the Andrews Institute for Girls at Willoughby, Ohio. The Appellate division of the Supreme Court confirmed the bequest after several years' contest.

Elections. — January 16. — United States Senators: William P. Frye, R., Maine; W. Murray Crane, R., Massachusetts; Simon Guggenheim, R., Colorado; Norris Brown, R., Nebraska; William E. Borah, R., Idaho; Robert L. Taylor, D., Tennessee; Joseph M. Dixon, R., Montana; Henry E. Burnham, R., New Hampshire; Harry A. Richardson, R., Delaware; William Alden Smith, R., Michigan.

—January 23.—Joseph W. Bailey reëlected United States Senator by the Texas legislature. Fred W. Mulkey, R., and Jonathan Bourne, Jr., R., Oregon; Charles Curtis, R., Kansas; John T. Morgan, D., and Edmund W. Pettus, D., Alabama; Shelby M. Cullom, R., Illinois; J. P. Dolliver, R., Iowa; Knute Nelson, R., Minnesota; F. M. Simmons, D., North Carolina; B. R. Tillman, D., South Carolina; R. J. Gamble, R., South Dakota; S. B. Elkins, R., West Virginia; Francis E. Warren, R., Wyoming.

— February 5. — State Treasurer Frank O. Briggs, R., to succeed John F. Dryden, of New Jersey.

Floods.—January 18.—The Ohio River rising and causing floods. In Cincinnati it is ten feet over the flood stage. Many people forced out of their homes and a large number of factories and business plants compelled to stop work. Every steel mill in Covington and Newport, Kentucky, shut down. Thirty-seven squares in Newport under water. Evansville, Indiana, in danger of a break in the levee.

—January 20.—The river pouring over levee of Louisville to the depth of a foot. Poorer homes submerged. Thousands being fed by city. Levee breaks at Portsmouth, Ohio; ten thousand homeless.

—January 21.—At Shawneetown, Illinois, some fifty families had to abandon their homes because of the flood.

Japanese Exclusion. — January 17. — United States District Attorney Devlin, of San Francisco, applied to the Supreme Court for a writ of mandate compelling the Board of Education to admit Keikichi, a ten-year-old Japanese boy, to the Redding Primary School. Attached to the petition was a request by United States Attor-

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ney-General Bonaparte that the United States be made a party to the record for the purpose of enforcing the treaty with Japan.

— January 22. — Immigration Commissioner North, under instructions from Washington, refused to permit two hundred Japanese laborers from Honolulu to land at San Francisco.

Labor.—January 17.—The eighteenth annual convention of the United Mine Workers, in session at Indianapolis, adopted a resolution demanding the separation of the department of commerce and labor and the establishment of a department of labor.

—January 22.—John Mitchell reëlected president of the United Mine Workers of America.

—January 28.—A fine of $4,000 imposed on the Allis-Chalmers Company, of Chicago, for violation of the alien contract labor law in importing four iron molders from England. This is said to be the first conviction in Illinois on this charge.

Negro troops.—January 14.—President Roosevelt, in a second message to Congress on the Brownsville affray, revoked, as being beyond his constitutional power, that part of his order dismissing the troops from the army which barred the discharged men from civil employment under the government.

Railroads.—January 25.—The Interstate Commerce Commission in report to Congress presented facts showing combination between the eastern railroads and the bituminous coal companies in violation of the anti-trust law....Attorney-General Young, of St. Paul, began quo warranto proceedings in the Supreme Court to compel the St. Paul, Minneapolis & Manitoba Railroad Company to show cause why its charter should not be forfeited.

Panama Canal Commission. — January 23. — Theodore P. Shonts resigned as chairman of the Isthmian Canal Commission to accept presidency of the Interborough Street Railway System of New York.

Science.—January 23.—Charles Doolittle Walcott, director of the Geological Survey, elected secretary and directive head of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.....Archer M. Huntington appointed president of the American Geographical Society in place of Commander Robert E. Peary.

Trusts.—January 14.—The Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, the Ohio Oil Company, the Solar Refining Company, the Buckeye Pipe Line Company, the Manhattan Oil Company, the Standard Oil Company of Ohio, John D. Rockefeller, William Rockefeller, Henry H. Rogers, John D. Archbold, Wesley H. Tilford, Frank Q. Barstow and F. G. Cuthbert, indicted by the grand jury at Findlay, Ohio, on 939 counts for violation of the Ohio anti-trust laws.

—January 18.—Suits charging violation of the Arkansas anti-trust laws filed by the district attorney against Armour & Co., the Waters-Pierce Oil Co., the Hammond Packing Co., Morris & Co. and the Cudahy Packing Co., for amounts aggregating $1,833,000 each.

Philippines

Typhoon.—January 10.—The islands of Leyte and Samar swept by a typhoon; one hundred lives lost on Leyte.

Mexico

Railroad.—January 23.—The Tehuantepec National Railroad formally opened to traffic by President Diaz. It connects the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

Salvador

President. — January 16. — Figueroa elected president of the republic.

British Empire

Cabinet. — January 23. — Augustine Birrell, president of the Board of Education, appointed chief secretary for Ireland, in succession to James Bryce. Reginald McKenna made president of the Board of Education.

Deaths.—February 10.—Sir William Howard Russell, editor of the *Army and Navy Gazette,* aged eighty-six.

Jamaica

Earthquake. — January 14. — Kingston partly destroyed by earthquake followed by fire. Estimated loss of life one thousand. Property loss $10,000,000. [See "Events" and article on pp. 314-320.]

—January 16.—President Roosevelt ordered fleet of supply ships to Kingston immediately. Rear-Admiral Robley D. Evans, stationed at Guantanamo, Cuba, with the North Atlantic fleet, ordered the battleships Missouri and Indiana, under Admiral Davis, to Kingston, to aid the work of relief.

—January 17.—The harbor bed dropped forty to sixty feet. Two lighthouses engulfed. Every business house, church, theater, bank and hotel destroyed; ten thousand people homeless.

—January 19.—At the request of Governor Swettenham, Rear-Admiral Davis withdrew his forces from Kingston and the food supplies sent by order of President Roosevelt. The United States war vessels returned to Cuba.

—January 22.—An expression of gratitude and apology received from the British government. In response to a request from the British minister at Havana, a number of army tents were sent to Kingston.

— January 29. — Governor Swettenham formally withdrew his letter to Admiral Davis and expressed his regret for having written it.

Dutch East Indies

Revolt.—January 29.—A serious revolt broke out in the province of Kediri, Island of Java. Many Dutch officials killed.

Tidal Wave.—January 22.—A tidal wave almost destroyed the Island of Simalu. One thousand persons probably lost their lives.

France

Death.—February 4.—Daniel Osiris, philanthropist who restored Malmaison and presented it to the French nation. He bequeathed $5,000,000 to the Pasteur Institute.

Divorce.—January 25.—The Chamber of Deputies, against vehement protests by the Right, adopted a bill providing for the automatic granting of decrees of divorce if either party persists in a suit for three years.

Income Tax.—February 7.—The new income tax measure introduced into the Chamber of Deputies. [See "Events."]

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Separation Law.—January 12.—Another encyclical from the Pope denied conspiracy to overthrow the republic or opposition to the government, but denounced the spoliation of the Church and the attack on religion.

—January 17.—At the sessions of the episcopate in Paris it was decided not to form cultural associations under the law of 1901, but to ask for precise instructions from Rome. It was decided to deposit church funds abroad, to transform the seminaries into superior theological schools and not to ordain any theological students until they have completed their military service.

—January 22.— The cabinet ministers approved the terms of a bill suppressing the formality of a declaration before holding a public meeting as required by the law of 1881, thus creating a *modus vivendi* under which churches may remain open for public worship.

— January 24.— "The French Apostolic Catholic Church," formed in compliance with the separation law, received official authorization in Paris.

— January 29.— The plenary council of the French episcopate published its declaration approved by the Pope. It demands recognition of the hierarchy and a contract between mayors and priests by which the use of the churches shall be given without interference except when public order is disturbed.

— January 30.— The Chamber of Deputies adopted the public meetings bill.

— February 6.— M. Briand, minister of education, issued model contracts by which clergymen or associations are granted the gratuitous use of churches for eighteen years on condition that the property be kept in proper repair.

— February 7. — The Vatican rejected both forms of church leases submitted by M. Briand.

Spain

Cabinet. — January 24. — Marquis de Armijo, and the ministers, resigned.

—January 25.—King Alfonso recalled Señor Maura, ex-premier and leader of the Conservatives, and desired him to form a new ministry.

German Empire

Casualty.— January 28.— Two explosions in the Reden coal mine at St. Johann-on-Saar, opposite Saarbrück, Rhenish Prussia, resulted in the death of 148 men and the injury of thirty-five.

Elections.— January 25.— The elections for the reichstag resulted in a defeat for the Socialists. The Kaiser and the government won.

—February 1.— Completed returns of the reichstag elections show that all the political parties increased their vote. [See "Events."]

German Southwest Africa

Revolt.— January 17.— Peace negotiations broken off, and fighting continued.

Hungary

Cabinet.— January 22.— Premier Wekerle, with his ministers, resigned.

Russian Empire

Assassination.— January 30.— M. Guidema, governor of the political prison on Vasili Ostroff, a suburb of St. Petersburg, shot and killed.

— January 31.— Victor Gruen, chief of the secret police of Warsaw, shot and killed by terrorists.

—February 8.—S. A. Alexandrovsky, Governor of Penza, commissioner to the Louisiana Purchase Exposition and head of the Red Cross service in the Russo-Japanese war, Assistant Chief of Police Zearrin and a policeman were shot and killed by a terrorist at Penza.

Cabinet.— January 17.— Admiral Birileff, minister of marine, tendered his resignation.

Death.— January 16.— Count Nicholas Tolstoy burned to death in his residence near Moscow while trying to save imperial funds in his care.

Elections. — January 30. — The primary elections for the douma among the smaller landowners in thirty-eight provinces, comprising one-half the total electorate, resulted in thirty-five per cent conservative monarchists; forty per cent, moderate progressives; and twenty-five per cent Constitutional Democrats and other extremists.

—February 4.—Count Heyden, leader of the party of peaceful regenerationists, and Professor Kovalevsky, leader of the Democratic Reform Party, defeated for reëlection to the douma.

—February 10.—Elections in nine large cities gave indications of victory for the opposition. In six provinces having fifty-six representatives, twenty-one are assured for the opposition.

Famine Relief.— February 1.— The imperial finance commission sanctioned the issuance of a new internal loan of $25,000,000 for the relief of famine sufferers. General Baron Freedericksz, a member of the imperial household, convicted by the senate of fraud in connection with the famine relief scandal.

Navy. — January 25.— A ukase issued which reverses the system of decentralization in reference to the navy, which has existed for ten years, and concentrates power and responsibility in the hands of the minister of marine. Admiral Dikoff appointed to succeed Vice-Admiral Birileff as commander-in-chief of the fleet.

China

Casualty.— January 28.— Over fifty Chinese craft sunk in the harbor of Hongkong during a terrific squall; more than a hundred natives drowned.

Smallpox.— January 16.— An outbreak of smallpox among the famine refugees at Sing Kiang; three hundred thousand destitute persons driven back toward their homes, many perishing by the way.

Persia

Coronation.— January 19.—Ali Mirza crowned Shah of Persia at Teheran.

Japan

Politics.— January 20.— Count Okuma announced his intention to resign the presidency of the Progressive party.

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THE TRUTH ABOUT MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP

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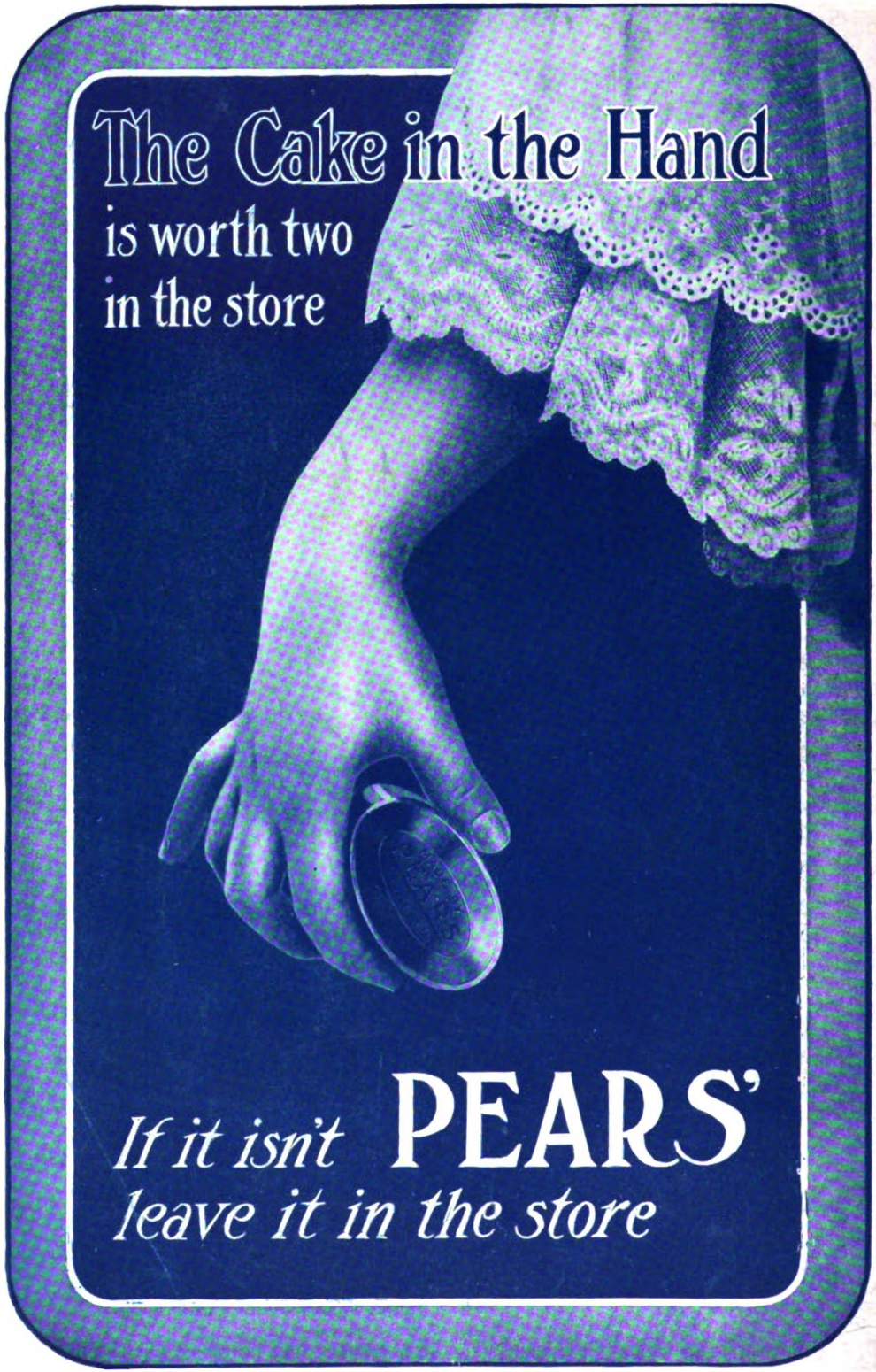

OF ALL SCENTED SOAPS PEARS' OTTO OF ROSE IS THE BEST.
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THE SPIRIT OF THE MONTH

LESSONS IN WHAT OUGHT NOT TO BE

High Life Makes the Court Room a School of Bestiality

High Dividends Teach Stockholders to Belittle the Evils of Child Labor

High Speed Teaches Contempt of Human Life

High Finance, Questioned by the Interstate Commerce Commission, Shows Us How to Grow Rich Selling Goods to Ourselves

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LOUIS F. SWIFT

Mr. Swift is the President of one of the greatest packing houses in the world. His article on the relation of Corporations and the Public will be found on page 369

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The World To-Day

VOLUME XII APRIL, 1907 NUMBER 4

Shall Reform Become Demagogism?

IF ever sanity were needed in the treatment of big questions it is to-day. Indignation against the abuses of corporate management and financial buccaneers is degenerating into a general attack upon rich men and business enterprise.

Like the Psalmist we are inclined to say in our haste that all men who have succeeded are liars and grafters or worse.

Of course this state of mind is what your Socialist wants. Nothing could suit him better. Because this or that capitalist has been shown to be unscrupulous he would have the whole country rise up in indignation against wealth itself.

Just now his attack and the attack of a good many men is upon swollen fortunes; but there is only one step from the swollen fortune to any sort of fortune.

It is true we stand aghast at disclosures such as Mr. Harriman made before the Interstate Commerce Commission. But such extraordinary financiering is not the rule; it is the exception.

That is why it is possible.

The indignation that it arouses becomes first cousin to demagogism when it extends itself into general suspicion of all types of business enterprise.

* * *

Within the past few weeks there has been a very decided change in the attitude of many corporate interests toward public opinion. Men

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are beginning to see that, whether or not President Roosevelt so declared at the Gridiron dinner, the best friend the capitalist has to-day is the moderate reformer.

All men who are engaged in business are in the same boat or are trying to get into it. Agitation against the capitalist as such is as much directed against the small captain of industry in a small country town as it is against the manager of some great railroad system.

The public wants protection against the prostitution of corporate interests to private gain, but quite as truly it needs protection against the reckless agitation that is being fostered by men of more or less avowedly socialistic tendencies.

* * *

It is not so long ago that a man closely allied with one of the largest corporate interests in the United States arose in Congress and urged that publicity was as much to the advantage of the corporation as to the public.

The good sense shown in that Congressman's speech is a long way removed from the apothegm of the late Mr. Vanderbilt.

It can not be too often repeated that the interests of a great corporation are really being protected by the interest of the small property owner. If it should ever come to an out-and-out struggle with Socialism, the farmer and the small shopkeeper will be found lined up with the men they have called the trust magnates.

* * *

The best advice that the honest student of economics can give the representatives of great business interests is to take the people into their confidence, to play the game according to the rules, and to make thoroughly apparent the solidarity of interest between business enterprises and commercial honesty.

Wealth has its rights and duties. It can not hope to hold to the one and to despise the other.

It can justly claim protection from sandbagging legislation and reckless agitation; but just as truly it is under obligation to respect the rights of the average citizen and refrain from policies and methods which in the long run will be as dangerous to itself and business enterprise generally as the reckless agitation of over-zealous reformers.

Of this much we can be sure: That if the corporations give the public a square deal, there is enough sanity left in the public to give the same square deal to the corporations.

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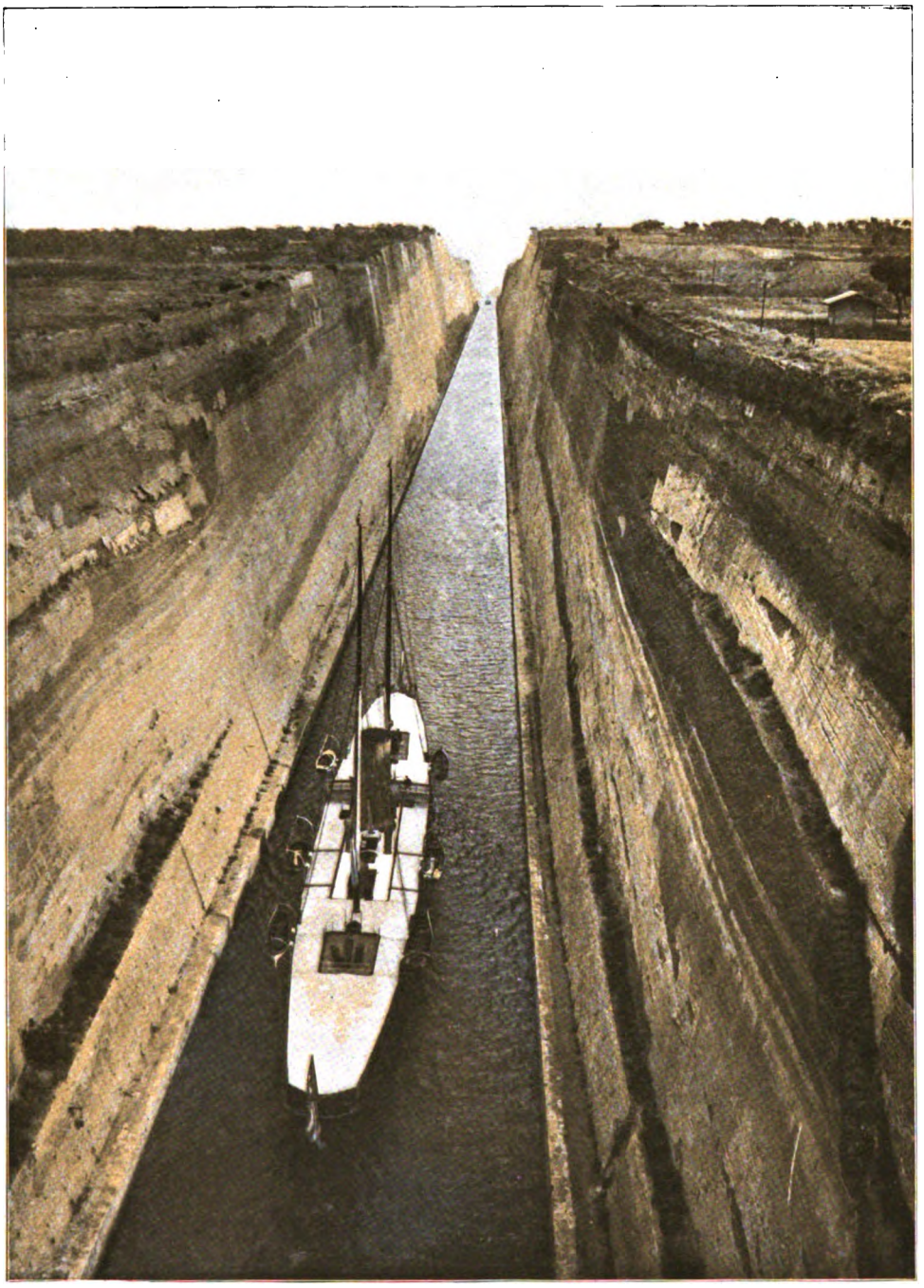

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THE CORINTHIAN CANAL IN GREECE

A remarkable sea-level canal connecting the Saronic Gulf with the Gulf of Corinth, Greece. The photograph was taken from the railroad bridge just as J. P. Morgan's yacht Corsair was passing through the canal

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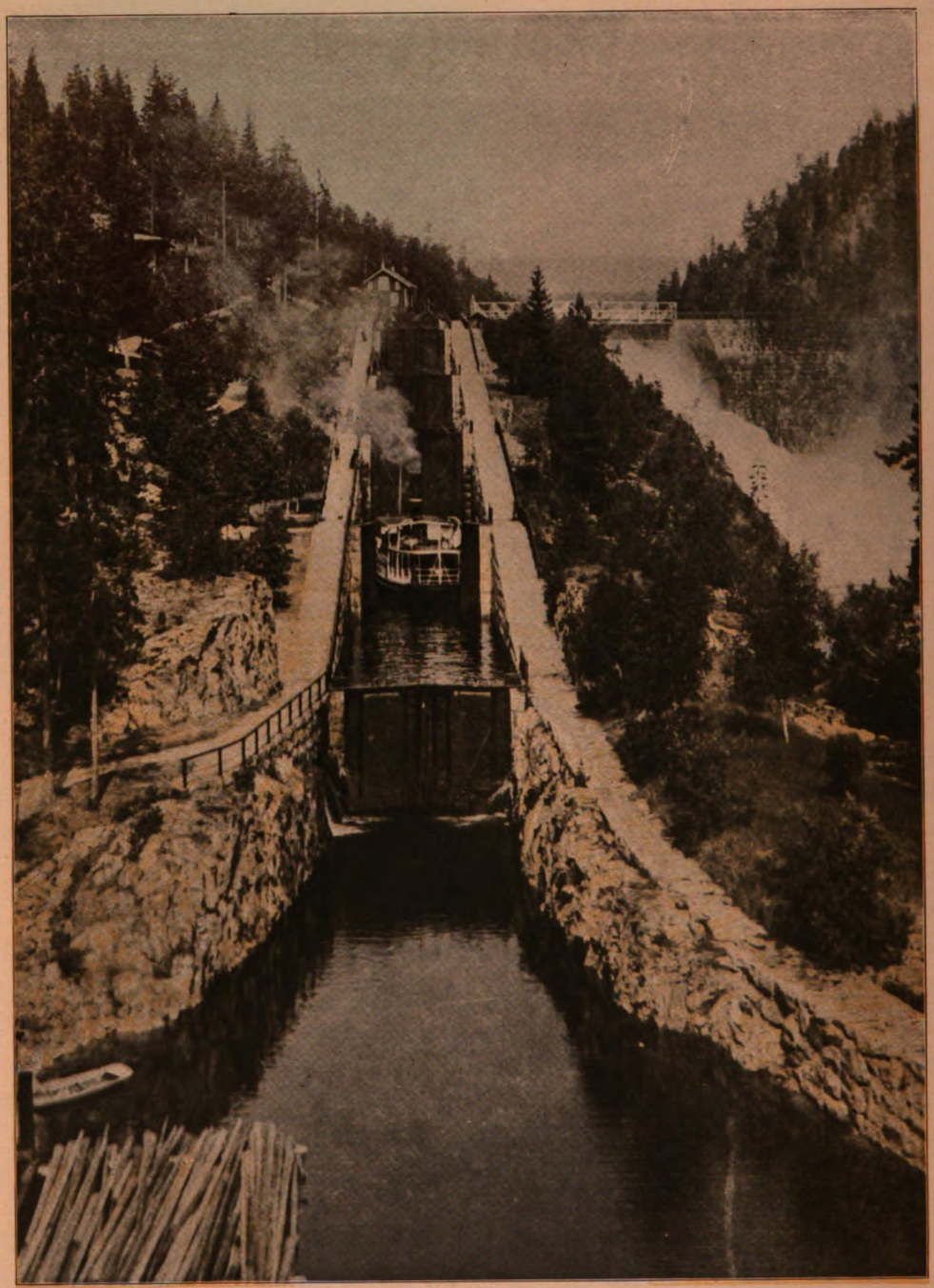

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THE BANDAK-NORDSJÖ CANAL IN NORWAY

By the locks in this canal steamboats climb the steep hill beside the Vrang Waterfall

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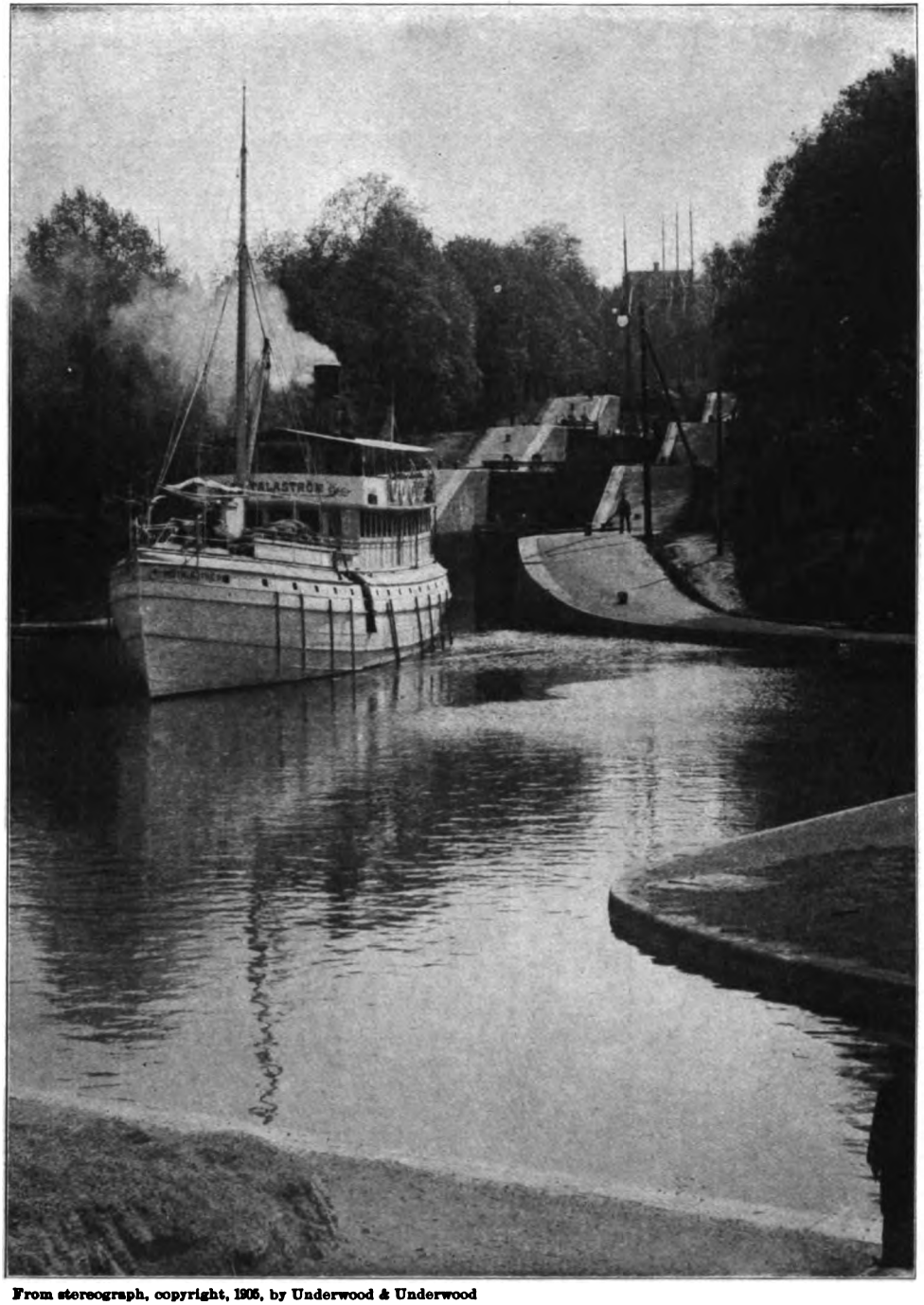

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THE GÖTA CANAL AT TROLLHATTAN, SWEDEN
A steamer is just emerging from the wonderful locks in this canal

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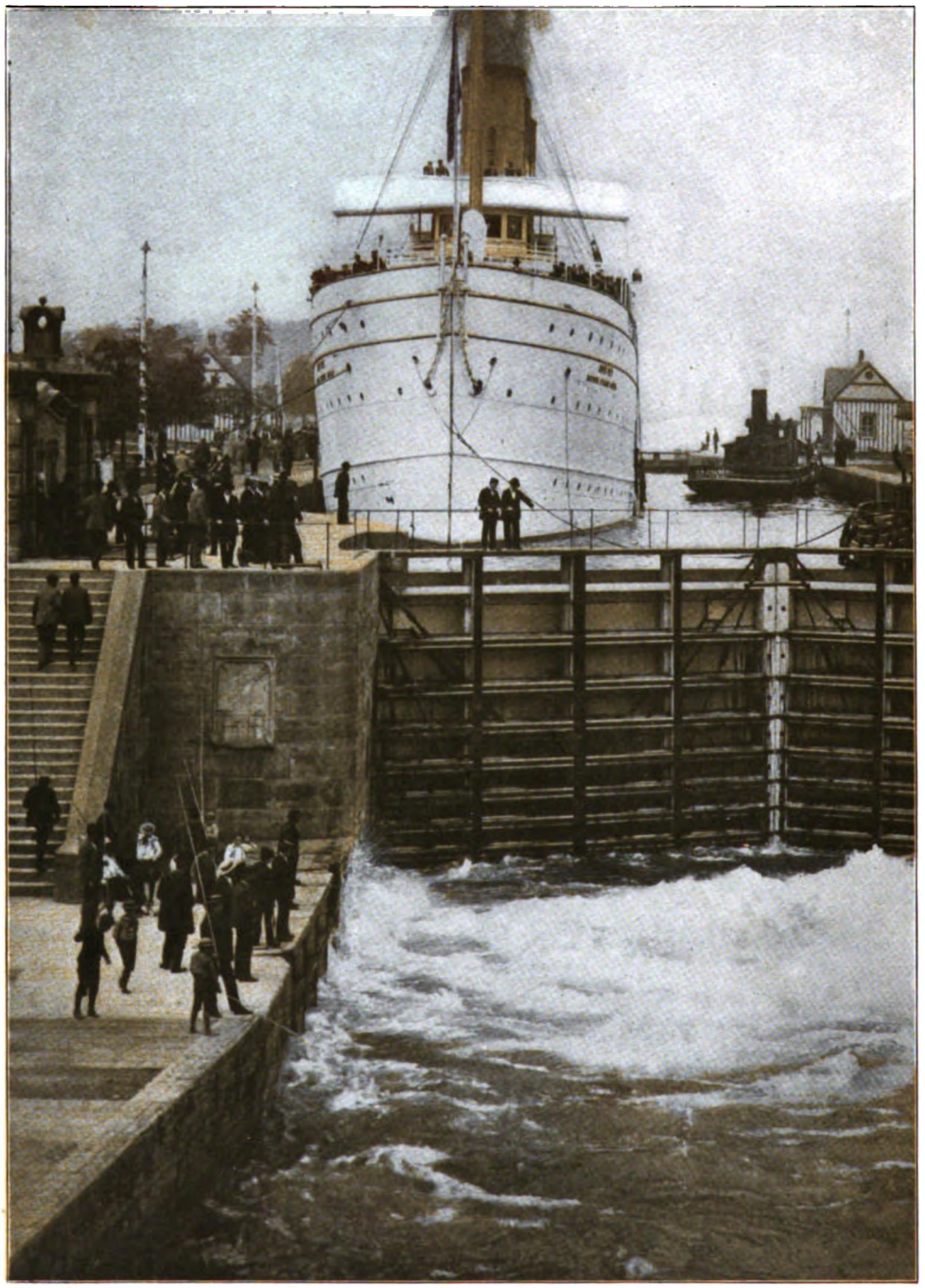

THE SAULT STE. MARIE CANAL, MICHIGAN
The steamship North-West is passing through the Weitzel Lock

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Foreign Affairs

The Russian Douma

Despite the restrictions with which the government endeavored to obstruct the elections for the lower house of the douma, the opposition delegates are decidedly in the majority. Indeed the extremists preponderate, there being 192 members forming the Left, from whom revolutionary action is expected. The government has about 126 supporters and the Center 164, most of whom are Constitutional Democrats who may be classed as Moderates. They desire a constitutional government, with a cabinet supported by the douma, and universal suffrage. In dissolving the first douma with the hope and intention that the second should be less radical, the bureaucracy has jumped from the frying-pan into the fire. The opening of the douma March 5 at the Tauride Palace was the signal for a revolutionary demonstration. Fired by speeches from some of the radical members, forty thousand or more people proceeded toward the center of the city waving red flags and singing the Marseillaise and other revolutionary songs. Fortunately the present prefect of St. Petersburg, General Dracheffski, did not adopt the Trepoff method of dealing with the crowds. A strong force of gendarmes, reinforced by the Chevalier guards, and finally by Cossacks, broke up the demonstration. No one was killed, although hundreds were injured.

Its Choice of a President

At the official opening of the douma no member of the imperial family was present. After the religious service M. Goluboff, vice-president of the council of the empire, entered the hall, called the lower house to order and then invited the members to sign the oath of allegiance to Emperor Nicholas. This was received with cheers by the conservatives, but with silence from the radicals. The Constitutional-Democrats entered the hall in a body after M. Goluboff's speech. The candidate of the united Left, M. Golovin, was elected president by 331 votes against 97 given to other candidates. Upon taking the presidential chair, M. Golovin spoke in moderate terms of the work before them, emphasizing the principle of popular representation as all powerful. Secret police were stationed in the gallery occupied by the general public, fears being entertained of attempts on the lives of the ministers. None, however, were made.

Terrorist Acts

Terrorism has by no means ceased. Several assassinations and attempts to kill have been chronicled during the past month. There has been an anti-Jewish outbreak in Odessa and Warsaw, the Union of True Russians apparently being permitted to plunder and kill in Odessa without decided interference from Governor-General Kaulbars. To such license did it extend that the foreign consuls made protest to their ambassadors against the prevailing lawlessness. On March 7 the Holy Synod ordered the suppression of a monastic paper edited by a monk, Father Iliadore, which had a wide circulation among the lower classes. For several months past it had contained reactionary articles urging patriotic Russians to slay all Liberals, and an elaborate plan for the execution of Count Witte for treason. March 3, one thousand five hundred policemen searched the student quarters of the Polytechnic Institute in St. Petersburg and found twelve infernal machines and hundreds of pounds of dangerous explosives, besides tons of revolutionary literature.

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LEADERS OF THE ENGLISH WOMAN SUFFRAGE MOVEMENT

Lady Frances Balfour, president of the Central Society for Women's Suffrage; Mrs. Henry Fawcett, president of the Union for Women's Suffrage Society; Lady Strachey, wife of Lieutenant-General Sir Richard Strachey, and Mrs. Patrick Campbell, the actress, are among those active in the demonstrations in favor of the bill giving the franchise to women which debate tactics recently prevented being put to the vote in the House of Commons. These ladies, with hundreds of others, marched from Hyde Park to Exeter Hall, despite the mud in the streets, in hope of influencing the parliamentary vote

'OME RULE! SUFFRAGETTES! 'OUSE 'O LUDS! SWET'NUM! WOW!!
Sanglier, in the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*

The New Gironde

The student of comparative politics is again impressed by the possible parallel between the progress of the revolutionary movement in Russia and that in France. It will be recalled that the Legislative Assembly which was the first to be elected under the new constitution in France was far more radical than its predecessor which had drawn up the constitution. In a sense the Cadet party of the Russian douma corresponds to the Girondists of France, while the Left of the douma corresponds in many ways to the Jacobin party in its earlier stages. In the Legislative Assembly, as in the douma, there was at first no pronounced movement toward Republicanism. We do not expect to see large, if any, expression of this tendency in the douma. The administration of Stolypin, hateful as it is to the extremists, has apparently placed the government in a much firmer position today than it held a year ago. Radical

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THE KING AND QUEEN OF ENGLAND AT DOVER
Taking the boat en route to Paris

legislation could now undoubtedly be forestalled, if necessary, by the dissolution of the douma, and the military forces are still loyal to the czar.

British Woman Suffragists

Conservative England has had a taste of mob methods on the part of the advocates of woman suffrage. The storming of Parliament by the suffragists as well as their general policy of violent agitation has made a profound impression on Great Britain, but it has also evoked a counter protest signed by many thousands of women and endorsed by such leaders as Mrs. Humphry Ward and Marie Corelli. When the bill providing for the granting of the franchise to women came before the House of Commons on March 8, Parliament House was in a state of siege. A double cordon of police surrounded the building and another force occupied the corridors inside. All women connected with previous disorders were excluded from the women's gallery, and only those whose good behavior was guaranteed by members of Parliament were admitted. The conservative victory in the London municipal elections, in which the women voted, inclined many of the Liberals to alter their intention of supporting the bill. Prime Minister Campbell-Bannerman announced that the question would be left to the free decision of the house. Personally, however, he favored the general principle of the inclusion of women in the suffrage, believing it to be expedient, justifiable and politically right. The debate continued until the hour of adjournment, the speaker thrice refusing the request of the author of the bill for the closure. These tactics prevented the question being put to vote and ended the matter for this session of Parliament. Notwithstanding this outcome, the agitation has served to bring the matter into

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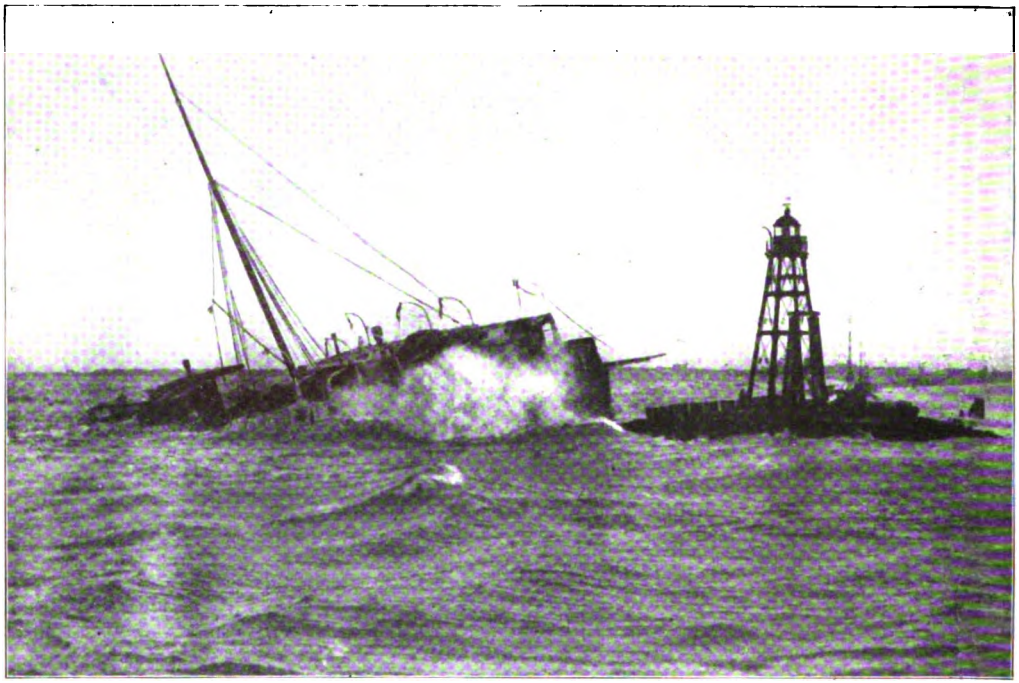

THE WRECK OF THE BERLIN ON THE PIER AT THE HOOK OF HOLLAND

In this disaster 130 lives were lost. The vessel was the mail steamer from Harwich, England, to Rotterdam. She had successfully weathered a violent gale which had prevailed throughout the voyage, but as she neared the harbor, was forced against the breakwater

prominence, and in its next session Parliament will probably take more positive action.

The Boer Victory in the Transvaal Elections

The Transvaal has just held its first election under the new constitution granted by the British government. The preceding campaign was a vigorous struggle between the people of the Transvaal and the great mining corporations on the Rand. The "Het Volk," or Boer political organization, joined forces with the Nationalists who are opposed to the capitalists. The Progressives represented the mining houses. The contest resulted in a most decided victory for the coalition, and the Het Volk will have thirty-seven votes in the lower house, a majority over all other parties combined. General Botha, a leader on the Boer side in the late war, becomes the prime minister of the Transvaal. His future policy has been frankly stated in a spirit of loyalty to the British government. He said: "The questions of the flag and of supremacy have been settled for all time. . . . Having got free government, our sole endeavor will be so to govern that the country shall prosper and the two races be drawn together. . . . We simply object to the men who run the mines also controlling the running of the country. . . . Nothing shall be done to embarrass the mines so far as unskilled labor is concerned. We want to restore confidence in the country." The British of course still retain a measure of control over the Transvaal, the upper house for the present being appointed by the governor and consisting of Englishmen in large majority. The British secretary of state for the colonies must also approve all bills relating to the natives.

Fighting in Central America

Two of the Central American republics are again involved in conflict with each other. A dispute as to boundary lines between Honduras and Nicaragua was to be settled by arbitration on the advice of the United States, Mexico and Guatemala, but the truce was short-lived, and each now accuses the other of violat-

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ing it, and taking the first offensive action. Be that as it may, the two countries are now laying waste each other's territory, the advantage to date apparently being with Nicaragua. Her troops have captured several Honduran towns and taken several prisoners. It is probable that San Salvador may unwillingly be compelled to take a hand in the matter on account of treaty obligations.

The Nation

The Deeds and Omissions of the Fifty-ninth Congress

The Fifty-ninth Congress is to be credited with a considerable amount of really constructive legislation. Indeed the great bills which it has passed make it worthy to be numbered among the historic congresses. Its first session particularly was important in that it passed laws affecting railway rates, pure food, meat inspection, as well as those providing for better consular service, uniformity of naturalization, and the commercializing of denatured alcohol. The second session which has just closed was chiefly devoted to appropriations and to Senator Smoot, the latter, as most thoughtful persons had anticipated, being allowed to retain his seat. The second session also took up the matter of immigration, giving the President power to prevent the coming of undesirable immigrants from the Philippines and Hawaii, and passed a bill providing for the limiting of the hours of railway employees. It is greatly to be regretted that Congress did not do more for the Philippines. It did indeed pass a bill establishing a bank authorized to loan money to those engaged in developing agriculture in the islands, but it did nothing to relieve the tariff situation. It is a serious reflection upon our national character that the Philippines should not be given some relief from the present tariff restrictions. Similarly Congress ought to have given citizenship to the Porto Ricans, protection to child labor, larger justice to the Chinese, and possibly more than anything else, protection to the forests of the Appalachian ranges and the White Mountains of New Hampshire.

The Influence of the President

In many ways the present session of Congress has developed into a contest between the President and certain powerful legislators, chief among whom was Speaker Cannon. In the main the President's influence prevailed, although Speaker Cannon has many faults of omission for which to answer. There has been noticeable during the past few months an increase in the criticism of President Roosevelt, and it is believed by many that there has been something of a diminution of his popularity. But such an estimate springs from a misreading of the public mind. There are certain large interests which can think of the President only as an agitator and would like to believe that the people are supporting him less heartily than two years ago, but any revolt, if it exists, is to be found among these representatives of particular interests rather than in the rank and file of citizens. President Roosevelt has some of the faults which go with strength, but when one recalls his share in bringing about legislation which is genuinely constructive, it seems hardly more than captiousness to recall such incidents as that of Mr. Storer. There have been few if any men in the history of the United

WORK OF THE FIFTY-NINTH CONGRESS

Weary Willie Congress—Well, I haven't sawed much wood, but it ought to be enough to keep the government a-goin' and get me a square meal.

Bartholomew, in the Minneapolis *Journal*

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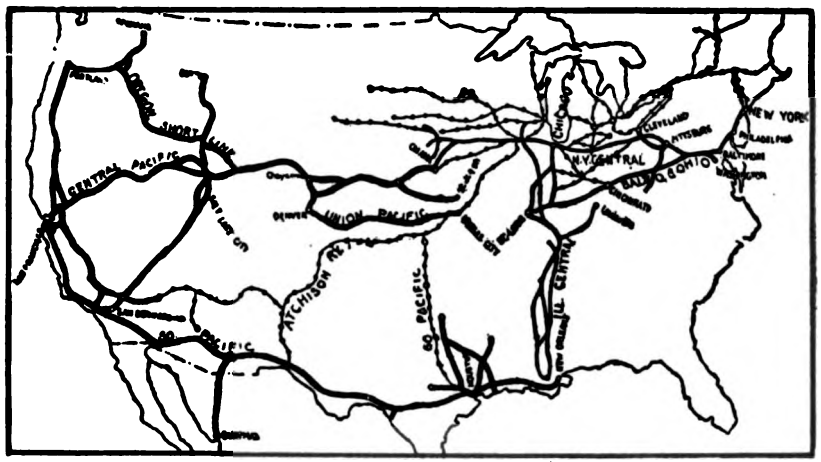

From the New York *Times*

THE HARRIMAN RAILROADS

The heaviest lines show railroads over which Mr. Harriman is practically supreme. Medium lines mark roads in which he is dominant. Light lines show those in the management of which he has a powerful influence

States who have more distinctly stood for a new public opinion and have been able to get that public opinion more effectively expressed in legislation.

Mr. Harriman at the Interstate Commerce Commission

Mr. E. H. Harriman's appearance before the Interstate Commerce Commission was significant in two ways. In the first place it showed that the commission is possessed of sufficient power to summon before it the most powerful financial interests in the country, and in the second place it led to a description of financial deals that are fairly bewildering. Mr. Harriman's descriptions of the manipulation of the Alton securities by syndicates represented by himself, Mr. M. L. Schiff, George J. Gould and James Stillman seem like a tale of Dumas. In 1899 the Chicago & Alton was capitalized for a little short of $40,000,000, selling at about 200. In that year the syndicate bought ninety-seven per cent of the entire stock issued. In October it issued $40,000,000 three per cent bonds, $32,000,000 of which was sold to the stockholders, that is to say, the syndicate, at 65. Later this syndicate sold large blocks of these bonds for from 83 to 96, realizing a profit, it is estimated, of something like $8,000,000. From the proceeds of this sale of bonds it declared a dividend to the stockholders — again the syndicate — of thirty per cent on the ground that permanent improvements of something like $12,000,000 had been made from the earnings of the company. This dividend netted the syndicate $6,669,180. The Alton issued also second mortgage bonds to the extent of $22,000,000, which the syndicate bought and sold at an estimated profit of $4,000,000. As a climax, the Alton was reorganized, the capital stock, bonds and obligations to-day totaling approximately $120,000,000. The syndicate sold 103,431 shares to the Union Pacific road, which was controlled by Mr. Harriman. It has been estimated that the total profits to the syndicate were at least $30,000,000. The insurance companies and the public are now in the possession of the Alton securities, which have been watered to an extent difficult to estimate, but which must run into the millions — a fact evidenced in current prices of both common and preferred, and in proposed legislation.

The Status of the Transactions

The unfinancial mind has some difficulty in grasping these transactions. The earning capacity of the Alton road is undoubtedly great and the securities have value in the market. The question of the legality of the issues may at some time be decided by the courts. In the meantime Mr. Harriman regards

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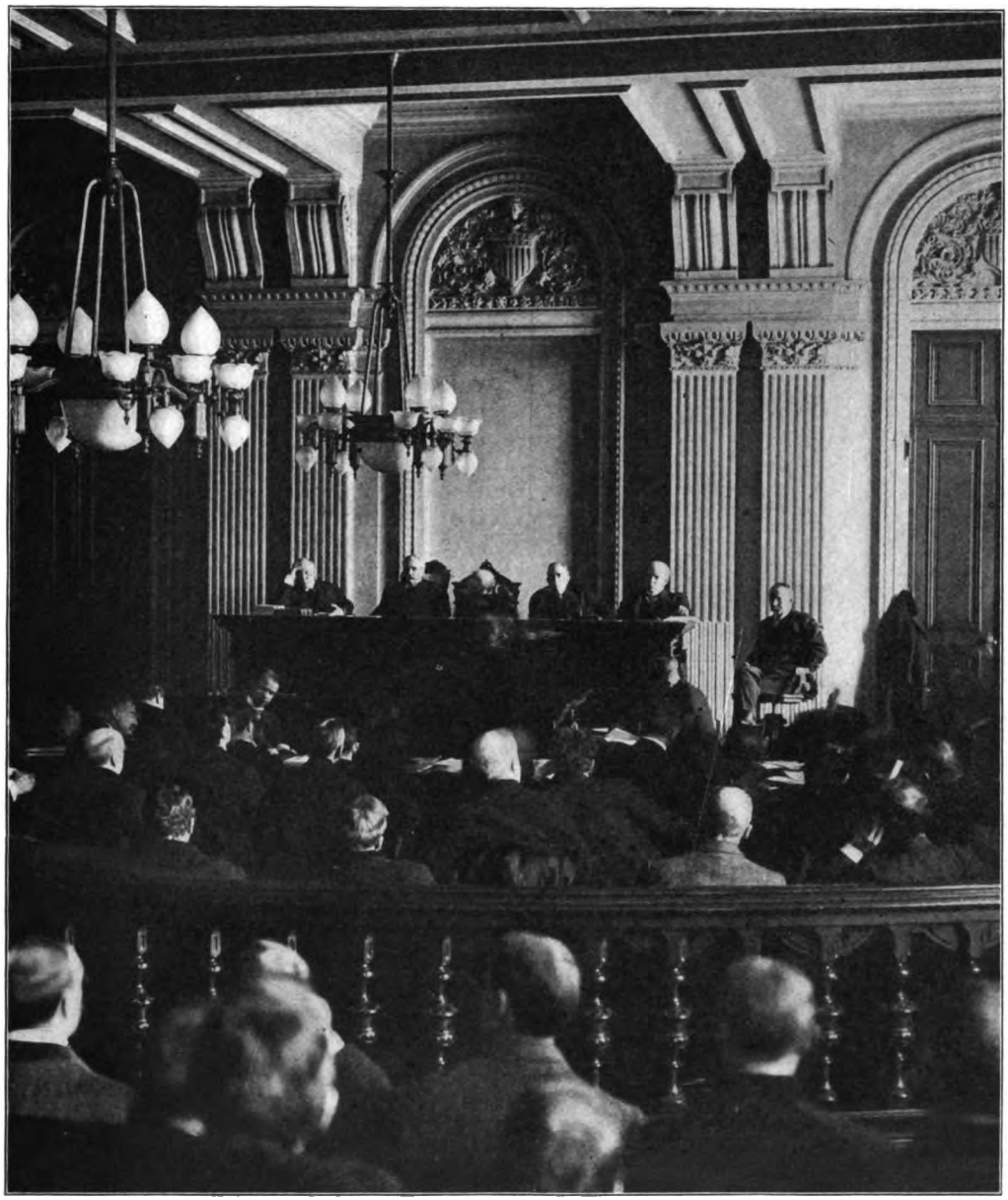

THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION WITH E. H. HARRIMAN ON THE WITNESS STAND

From left to right: Franklin K. Lane, Judson Clements, Martin A. Knapp, C. A. Trouty, James F. Harlan, E. H. Harriman

the issues as perfectly legitimate, and justifies his transformation of the Union Pacific into an investor in them. High financial powers like the New York Life Insurance Company evidently agree with him, for they have bought millions of the bonds. The magnitude of the transaction and the profits accruing to the syndicate make an estimate of the entire matter very largely one of personal equation. The common man estimates it in one way, the financier who believes that a company can be capitalized on the basis of its earning capacity in another. Just what position the Interstate Commerce Commission will take remains to be seen. Its investigation was certainly not intended to be simply academic.

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THE TWO-CENT FARE PRIMER

Lucy Northwest—Up! Up! Henry, and see the sun rise.
Henry Railroads (drowsily)—Go on, Lucy dear, I don't think there will be a sunrise

Bartholomew, in the Minneapolis *Journal*

One thing, however, should be borne in mind in the interests of fair play. The syndicate took hold of the road in a period of great depression and has carried it through a period of extraordinary prosperity and consequent earning power. Mr. Harriman is something more than a stock-jobber. He is one of the builders of the time. He took the Union Pacific when it was a bankrupt road and has made it one of the great properties of the country. Other men might have done the same in the period of extravagant prosperity, but he did it none the less, and by good management. It will be this for which he will be remembered longest. He has grown rich in a different way from that type of railroad builder who first wrecked a company in order to make it successful. But does even this fact warrant the Alton deals, and the manipulation of Union Pacific in the interest of stock investment?

Mr. Harriman as a Builder

The relations of the railroads and the public have been made at least one degree more distinct by the unexpected conversion of Mr. Harriman to a new sense of the power of the government. He is reported as having said "Railroad managers in the past neglected to build up a strong harmonious relationship between themselves and with the government and the people." He believes that that attitude of mind was mistaken and that hereafter there will be larger coöperation between the chiefs of railroad corporations and the government. In other words, Mr. Harriman is another illustration of that tendency we have noted on another page, for corporations to realize that they are confronting something more than a passing furor of agitation. The old order is changing and the men who recognize this the soonest will be the men who will reap the chief advantages. The significance of President Roosevelt, as far as corporations is concerned, does not lie in his San Domingo policy or in his difficulties with the Panama Canal. He is expressing executively a public opinion that is every day growing better established and more powerful. It was natural that men possessed of great power like Mr. Harriman should have failed to realize this at the start. That they realize it now and are planning to conduct their business in accordance with the new respect for law is both sagacious and prudent.

Mr. Harriman and Public Opinion

Outside of New England there is a very determined effort toward legislation looking to the control of railroads, and particularly of railway rates. Bills reducing fares to 2 cents a mile have

Legislating against the Railroads

THE FOX

Macauley, in the New York *World*

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Photograph, by the National Press Association

THE HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS, ADMINISTRATION BUILDING, CULEBRA, CANAL ZONE

Top row, left to right: J. F. Stevens, Chief Engineer; D. H. Reed, Secretary; Mr. Comber, Division Engineer; E. P. Shannon, Secretary to Chief Engineer; W. G. Biera, Manager, Panama R. R.; J. Smith, Manager Labor Quarters; Captain Shanton, Chief of Police, Canal Zone

Second row: J. G. Holcomb, Division Engineer; Col. Gorgas, Chief Sanitarian Officer; Mr. Ripley, Assistant Chief Engineer; F. A. Maltby, Principal Assistant Engineer; W. G. Tubby, Material and Supplies

Bottom Row: E. J. Williams, Disbursing Officer; D. W. Bolich, Division Engineer, Culebra; R. Arango, Division Engineer, River Hydraulics; H. L. Stuntz, Local Auditor; G. D. Brook, Superintendent Motive Power and Machinery; W M. Belding, Building and Construction

been passed by Nebraska, North Dakota, Maryland, West Virginia, Indiana, Iowa and Missouri, and similar bills have been introduced in at least one branch of the Legislature in Minnesota, Illinois and New Jersey. Laws have been either passed or introduced fixing rates from 2¼ to 3 cents a mile in South Dakota, North Carolina, Alabama and New Mexico. Laws authorizing the appointment of railway commissions have also been introduced in several states, including Colorado, Oregon, Nevada, New York, North Carolina, Alabama, Indiana, Minnesota, South Dakota and Nebraska. It is to be borne in mind that railway commissions and low rates had been authorized previously in a number of the states. The movement is still proceeding vigorously, and no one can tell how far it is likely to go. The outline of defense for the railroads has not yet been issued, but the probability is that an attack will be made upon the constitutionality of such legislation. And the roads can make a strong case provided they can show that the enforcement of the low rate actually entails serious loss. Another line of criticism has been suggested by Mr. Harlan of the Interstate Commerce Commission. He sees in the local legislation a menace to interstate commerce.

State vs. Interstate Interests

There is no small weight in this suggestion of Mr. Harlan. Speaking generally, law-making by state legislatures is likely to be more injurious to railroads than that passed by Congress. Texas, for example, has passed a bill to the effect that all trains thirty minutes late are to be held up and fined.

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MAJOR G. W. GOETHALS, U. S. A.
Who succeeds Mr. Stevens as Chairman of the Canal Commission

But other legislation is strictly in the interests of the particular state, as for example such laws as compel the providing of cars for local service as over against interstate service. State legislatures are not likely to take into account the well-being of other communities than those directly represented and as a consequence are likely to pass extreme legislation more hastily than the welfare of the country at large warrants. It would undoubtedly be far better for the country, as well as for everybody concerned, to have federal rather than state control of interstate roads. Just how this is to be brought about constitutionally is far more difficult to see. The one feasible method seems to be that which has already been submitted, namely: the increase of powers of interstate commerce commissions. The Washington government has not shown itself hostile to railroads or corporations as such, but stands for the enforcement of law. It was because of this attitude that President Roosevelt for awhile was regarded as a demagogue and an agitator. As compared with the action of various state legislatures his policy seems almost conservative.

Exit Stevens

It is a rare month that the unexpected does not happen at Panama. Last month we closed our comment upon Mr. Shonts's resignation with the fervent hope that Mr. Stevens would remain a fixture. This month we record regretfully that Mr. Stevens has followed Mr. Wallace and Mr. Shonts and various other

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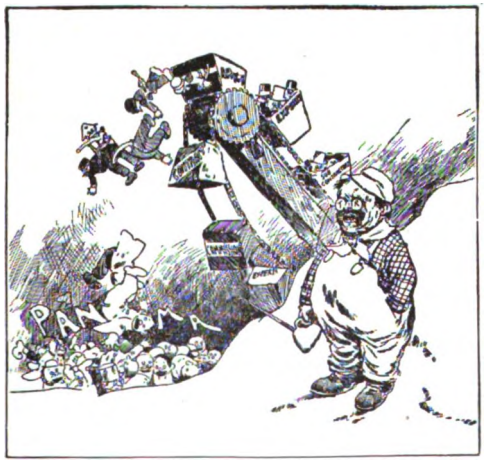
high officials into the land of resignation. The real cause for this action we do not know. President Roosevelt has given him a benedictory letter and has placed Panama in the hands of the army. He is at least reasonably sure of no resignations of the army engineers. It would seem as if Mr. Stevens's resignation was due to a mixture of climate and dislike of contract digging. We shall now wait to see how thoroughly the new engineer, who is believed in every way to be competent, will take up the work that Mr. Stevens lays down. Fortunately under the new regulation he will be given annually six months' respite from Panama by interchange of office with one of his colleagues.

Our Young Reforming Governors

Some of our young reformers who have become governors are showing a fine disregard for the conventions of the gubernatorial office. George L. Sheldon, for instance, the new governor of Nebraska, has instituted a suit against himself for $100, for one month's rent of the Executive Mansion. Governor Sheldon discovered that the constitution did not include the rent of the mansion in the governor's pay. As he is endeavoring to enforce the law impartially, he is making himself his own victim. Governor Higgins of Rhode Island is another of our young "reform" governors. He is not troubled over matters of house rent, but over one of the tenants of the State House, the "blind boss" Brayton, who has deskroom in the sheriff's office and runs the state to suit himself and the corporations. Governor Higgins has asked the sheriff to oust the boss. The sheriff declines and calls upon the governor to substantiate his charges of corruption. In the meantime the boss remains a tenant of the capitol. Evidently there is no one road which all reform governors can travel.

GEORGE L. SHELDON
The honest governor of Nebraska



"WORKING FINE TO-DAY"
Donahey, in the Cleveland *Plain Dealer*

The President, the Japanese and California

It looks as if the Roosevelt-California-Japanese crisis were safely passed. Mayor Schmitz and his delegation have returned to California from Washington with the assurance that the President will exercise his authority to place restrictions on the recognition of Japanese passports. The amendment to the Immigration Bill which gives the President this power, was proposed by Secre-

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tary Root and passed by the Senate as follows:

That whenever the President shall be satisfied that passports issued by any foreign government to its citizens to go to any country other than the United States, or to any insular possession of the United States, or to the canal zone, are being used for the purpose of enabling the holders to come to the continental territory of the United States to the detriment of labor conditions therein, the President may refuse to permit such citizens of the country issuing such passports to enter the continental territory of the United States from such other country or from such insular possessions or from the canal zone.

The state legislature of California which had taken up anti-Japanese legislation, postponed action at an intimation from the President that such action might complicate negotiations with Japan. As the public is given to understand that affairs are moving satisfactorily within diplomatic circles, and Mayor Schmitz is having troubles from investigation committees of San Francisco, it is not improbable that the affair is closed at least for the present season.

The Law and the Saloon

The liquor business has been again in evidence during the past month. S. R. Artman, a Circuit Judge in Indiana, has decided that the legislature has no legal right to license the sale of intoxicating liquors. He holds that the retail liquor business, like gambling, has no legal standing and is dangerous to public health, morals and safety. If such a decision is allowed to stand, there will be no need of prohibition laws in the United States. We do not believe, however, that the decision can possibly stand. Yet it is at least an indication of a new hostility to the saloon. South Carolina has abolished the State Dispensary System which Senator Tillman caused to be established when he was governor of the state. He made it an issue in the recent campaign for state legislators and was defeated. Readers of THE WORLD TO-DAY will recall that several months ago we published an article showing the evil effects of the system and particularly of the corrup-

JAMES H. HIGGINS, GOVERNOR OF RHODE ISLAND
Who is endeavoring to rid the capitol of "Boss" Brayton

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tion which flowed from it. South Carolina now becomes a local option state in the sense that its various counties may maintain dispensaries, while those counties which do not wish to establish such institutions will have neither them nor saloons. In any case the saloon is illegal in South Carolina.

Chicago and Traction Its Problem Again

Chicago is again in the midst of a municipal campaign, and the municipal campaign is again in the agonies of the traction question. It will be recalled that the board of aldermen passed a bill over Mayor Dunne's veto authorizing the city to come to terms with the traction companies. Every one had supposed that Mayor Dunne would favor the bills, but for some reason he yielded to more doctrinaire influence than that furnished by his special counsel, Walter L. Fisher, and came out roundly denouncing them. Subsequently he declared that they did not constitute the only issue in the approaching municipal election. As the city must pass upon them by referendum the situation is exceedingly complicated. Unless all signs fail, Mayor Dunne was renominated by his party pretty largely in the hope that he and his municipal ownership policy would be so thoroughly defeated as to disappear from the political horizon. This plan does not look so promising to-day as it did a few weeks ago. The nomination of Mr. Busse by the Republicans has forced upon the citizens a melancholy choice between a well-intentioned but bungling candidate and a machine politician of the most ordinary type, supported by the Lorimer wing of the Republican party. Mr. Busse is at present postmaster of Chicago. Because of the division of the Chicago Republicans between Governor Deneen and the Lorimer-Hopkins-Jameson combination on the other, he has held a balance of power and has achieved a prominence altogether greater than is legitimately his. His election would be a serious blow to Governor Deneen, but his defeat would mean the success of Mayor Dunne. Whether or not it would mean also the defeat of the traction ordinance no one seems quite ready to say.

JUDGE S. R. ARTMAN, OF INDIANA
Who has ruled that liquor licenses are illegal

VERY SATISFACTORY SETTLEMENT
Sanglier in the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*

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The Drama

Two Realistic Plays

An unusually quiet month has been marked by the unexpected success of Arthur Schnitzler's "Leibelei," renamed "The Reckoning" in an English adaptation. Tested in the Berkeley Lyceum, famed as a graveyard for ambition's experimentation in higher dramatics, it has served the double purpose of lifting the gloom of defeat from the play-house, and of introducing Schnitzler to the American public as a worthy exponent of the modern school of German realists. It is a serious exposé of a certain phase of frivolous Continental life and is written to point a moral. In this respect the German realists differ from the French who write merely to amuse. Schnitzler reveals poignantly an evil with flashes of subtle satire mingled dexterously with smug materialistic Teutonic philosophy. It has found favor in its adaptation and has afforded Katherine Grey a stellar rôle of histrionic worth. Again, George Broadhurst has tempted the fates with a courageous revival of a play doomed to failure one year ago under the precarious title of "The Coward." Reconstructed, revived and renamed "The Mills of the Gods," it has again been presented to the metropolitan public for its verdict. It is a curious and daring play, hopelessly weak in motive, yet surprisingly interesting in its development. It holds the attention unflaggingly, for it is a capital study in inherent cowardice. Yet it fails to arouse sympathy, a necessary factor in the stability of any play, and it is doubtful whether the revival will meet with any greater success than the original production. It is a melodrama, dealing with primitive warfare between two men. It is not intellect, nor true courage which wins, but mere brute force. Hence it is doomed to short life, even for those who find consummate satisfaction in a fisticuff encounter.

MAUDE ADAMS
Who is playing in Barrie's successful "Peter Pan"

Oda Nielsen

Under the auspices of a Danish-American association, Mme. Oda Nielsen, a Danish comedienne of brilliant gifts, is making a tour of this country. She is recognized as the most talented living Danish actress, and her appearances in America in native plays in the native tongue have been a series of triumphs. Though past middle age, she has preserved the look and buoyancy of youth. As an artiste her gifts are remarkable. She is a Rejane and a Duse in one. She is subtle, imaginative, intensely emotional, yet on the other hand endowed with the exuberant art of the comedienne. Her artistic versatility seems boundless, for she sings as well as acts. As an interpreter of English, French, Danish, and Scandinavian folk songs and ballads she has few equals. The chief vehicle in her dramatic répertoire is "The Large Laws," by Stella Rhys, and a little problem play, "The Liar's Book," in both of which she is revealed as an actress of depth and under-

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standing. As the chief exponent of the art of the Danish theater, her American appearances have been of marked interest to students of comparative dramatic art, as well as to her own expatriated countrymen.

Ellen Terry

For lack of more suitable material, Ellen Terry has introduced in her American répertoire a pathetic tragedy of the sea called "The Good Hope." It is a careful adaptation from the Dutch of Heijermans, and as a representative work uncommonly interesting. It depicts the folk life of the Dutch with understanding and it presents a powerful human story, steeped in terrible and terrifying gloom. It is difficult to understand why an artiste of Miss Terry's class, a comedienne whose art is essentially laughter-creating, should choose this pitiless arraignment against the cupidity of Dutch ship-owners as a vehicle for her gifts. The play was written, however, to right the wrongs of Holland fishers, and could scarcely fail to make an appeal to those humanly concerned.

The Verdict of "The Road"

Plays which have met with an unmistakable triumph in New York do not always find the same measure of success on the road. This is true of Pinero's "His House in Order" which does not manifest the staying power it exhibited during its metropolitan run. On the other hand Barrie's "Peter Pan" is leaving everywhere a deep ineradicable impression of satisfaction for its fantastic beauty, its romantic, imaginative charm. The same success has attended "The Girl of the Golden West" and "The Music Master." These three plays are being presented to remarkable financial returns in every city where they have so far appeared. Yet none are characterized by any element of real dramatic greatness, but rather by a tricky theatrical effectiveness, created to meet the public taste.

Grand Opera

Grand opera has been the supreme artistic amusement of the month. Puccini's "Manon Lescant" had practically its première in America, though inadequately produced many years ago. Musically beautiful, dramatically effective, it has become a valuable work in the Metropolitan répertoire. The young and promising Cavalieri appeared to advantage in the title rôle. The renowned Italian baritone, Sammarco, made his début in America in "I Pagliacci" and was greeted with a tumult of enthusiasm and appreciation. The return of Mme. Melba, after six years' absence, has drawn huge audiences and the furore that only a great singer can inspire has followed each of her performances. Her appearances at the Manhattan in "La Traviata" and in the first rendering of Saint-Saëns' "Hélène" disclosed her supposedly waning power restored to its perfection. The San Carlo Opera Company, touring the country under the direction of Henry Russell, with an all-star cast including Lillian Nordica, Alice Nielsen, Monti-Baldini, Constantino, and Campanari, is giving well-supported and good performances of Italian grand opera at reasonable prices. It is an enterprise worthy of success. The young American, Alice Nielsen, gifted with a flexible, pure voice of considerable range, interprets her rôles with simple dignity and unusual effectiveness. It is anticipated that the San Carlo Opera Company will become permanently established in Chicago for a lengthy season of grand opera each winter.

The Religious World

The Laymen's Missionary Movement

A new movement with reference to world-wide missions is the enlistment of laymen in a distinctive organization. At Omaha recently 1,055 men registered as delegates to what is believed to be the first foreign missionary convention of men ever held in this country. It held a three days' session. This was composed of men of the Presbyterian Church only, and action was taken to the effect that the number of missionaries sent out by that church should be largely increased. The movement has now spread to other denominations and a general committee has been organized of men

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prominent in their respective churches to work as an interdenominational body through the various missionary boards. It has a twofold purpose: a campaign of education at home through parlor and dining-room conferences, and the appointment of a commission of laymen, fifty or more in number, to visit and investigate, at their own expense, the foreign missionary fields, to report upon the progress and needs of the work. It is expected that the first of these commissions will start in August next. This new movement is full of promise for a more rapid evangelization, commensurate to some extent at least with the growth and prosperity of the churches in America. With such men as Senator Crane of Massachusetts, Hon. John W. Foster of Washington, and Mr. William J. Schieffelin of New York, and others equally prominent as its leaders, it ought to command the hearty support and coöperation of men generally.

Recruiting the Ministry

Comment is frequent in these days upon the decrease of candidates for the ministry. The number of students in the theological seminaries of the country has been for some years gradually lessening. In recognition of this fact and in the hope of turning the tide, an organization has been formed in California, called "The Student Recruits for the Christian Ministry." It originated at a college Young Men's Christian Association conference at Pacific Grove, California. One-fourth of the men present pledged themselves "to become ministers and aggressively to promote the consideration of the ministry as a vocation for Christian young men." They adopted a policy represented in the legends, "A United Church," "Missionary Aggressiveness" and "An Up-to-Date Ministry." A state association was formed, to be known as the California Division, with the hope that this would prove the nucleus of a national organization. This organization is but one aspect of a growing campaign for more and better trained candidates for the ministry. Sooner or later the supply will rise to meet the already great demand.

Disestablishment of the Church in England and Wales

Strikingly significant of the change in British public opinion is the vote taken in the House of Commons on the disestablishment of the Church. By a vote of 198 to 90 a resolution favoring it, which had been introduced by a private member, was adopted. Overwhelming defeat attended a similar proposition before the House some thirty years ago. On the present occasion the Prime Minister voted for it, and many other members of the Church of England must also have done so. It was merely a declaration of principles, not an act to compel disestablishment, but it is nevertheless an omen of what the future will undoubtedly bring to pass.

The Church in Spain and France

Recent events in Spain must have proved consolatory to the Vatican. A royal order from King Alfonso has reversed the decree given in August last permitting marriage by civil ceremony only. This decree naturally was bitterly opposed by the Catholic bishops and the Vatican, and those who acted in accordance with its provisions were excommunicated, and in case of death, refused ecclesiastical burial. The conservative ministry now in power is in sympathy with the Clericals rather than with the reformers. A new Spanish minister to the United States, Senor Ramon Pina, has been appointed, and will shortly arrive in Washington. In France it is to be hoped that a compromise will finally be reached regarding ecclesiastical property whereby the law of separation will be essentially enforced, but the Catholic hierarchy at the same time receive proper recognition. Such an outcome would be in accordance with law and good sense. It is to be hoped also that ecclesiastical energies will become less political and more directed against the anti-Christian spirit that is discernible behind too much of the legislation against the Roman Church in France.

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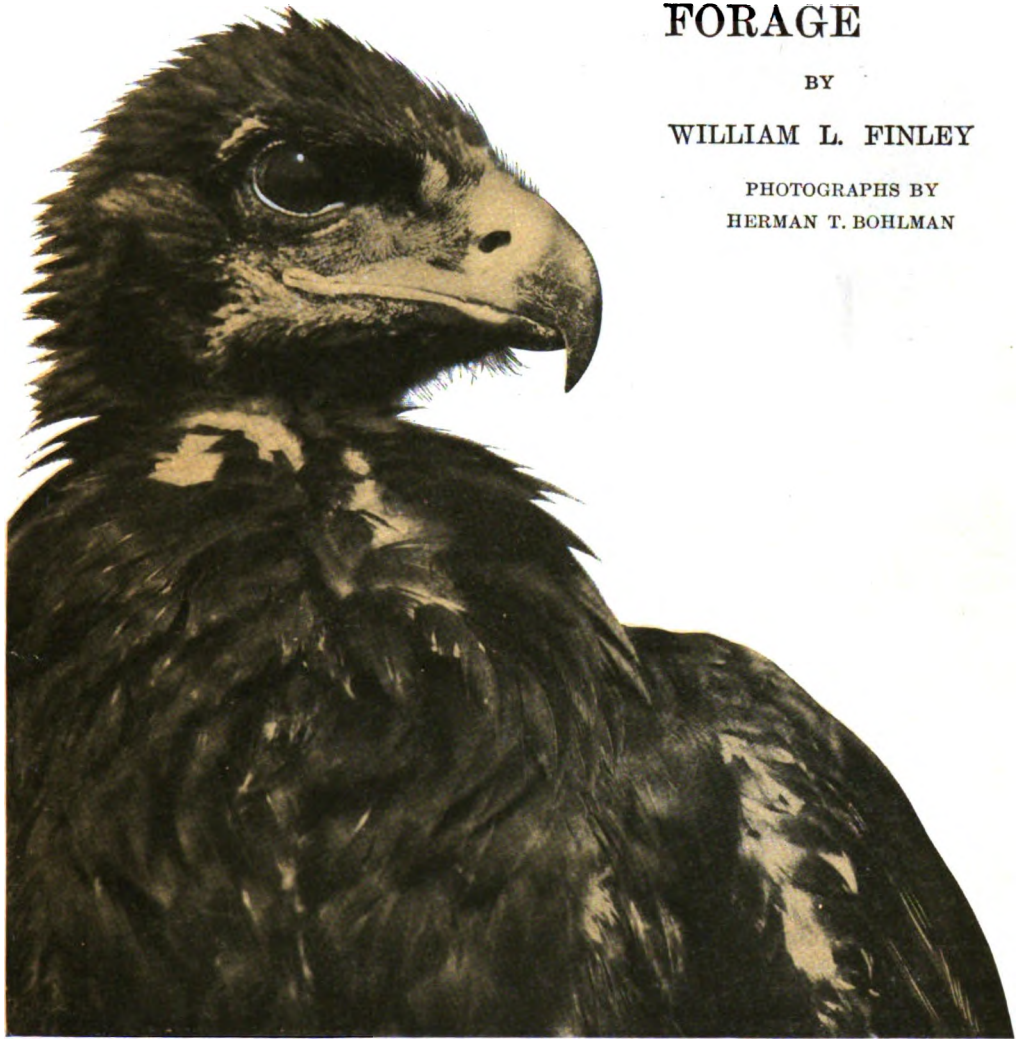
HOW BIRDS OF PREY FORAGE

BY

WILLIAM L. FINLEY

PHOTOGRAPHS BY
HERMAN T. BOHLMAN



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A young golden eagle

THERE is a charm in the life of a wild bird of prey. Like the Indian who once hunted his daily food through forest and over plain, these creatures have every sense developed to a high point for their own protection and existence. They are peculiarly fitted by nature to play their parts in the animal world. Powerful in flight, possessed of marvelous eye-sight, with sharp talons for holding and strong, hooked bills for tearing their prey, these birds live by catching and killing creatures almost as crafty as themselves.

The eye of the bird of prey is doubtless the most perfect organ of sight that exists. Think of the eye of the eagle that distinguishes minute objects from high in the sky and dives to strike with an accuracy that seldom fails. The osprey sails high over the river or lake, and even

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A YOUNG BUZZARD JUST BEGINNING TO FEATHER OUT
The white down is replaced by black feathers

to feed on carrion, this change is clearly reflected in the feet. For instance, the foot of the vulture shows weaker muscles, shorter and duller claws, for the toes have lost their clasping power.

Many people have thought that buzzards have an unusual sense of smell that guides them over miles of territory in search of food. But many years ago, it was proved that sight is the principal factor in guiding the bird of prey. Audubon made careful experiments with a black vulture. The dry, stuffed skin of a deer which he placed out in the field, soon attracted a vulture. Although there was no smell of flesh and nothing eatable about it, the bird lit and began tugging at the dry skin. Later, when the same bird circled over the field, it espied a small snake not thicker than a man's finger, and pounced upon it. In another case, the de-

under the wind-roughened surface distinguishes a small fish and knows whether it is within striking distance. Most marvelous of all is the sight which enables the owl to strike the mouse in the darkness or pursue and capture the bat which we can scarcely see even in the early twilight.

The talons of some of the larger birds of prey are extremely strong. The feet of the osprey make a splendid fish-trap, one from which no fish can escape when once caught. The great, curved talons of the eagle are most effective, and are certainly stronger than those of all other birds. When they once close on an object, the clutch is so tight that it can scarcely be loosened unless the bird's leg be severed. The strong claws are not only used in catching food, but are used also in carrying nesting material. If, instead of killing its prey, a species of bird is accustomed

A SCREECH-OWL LEAVING ITS NEST HOLE
A useful bird in any farming community because of the rodents it kills

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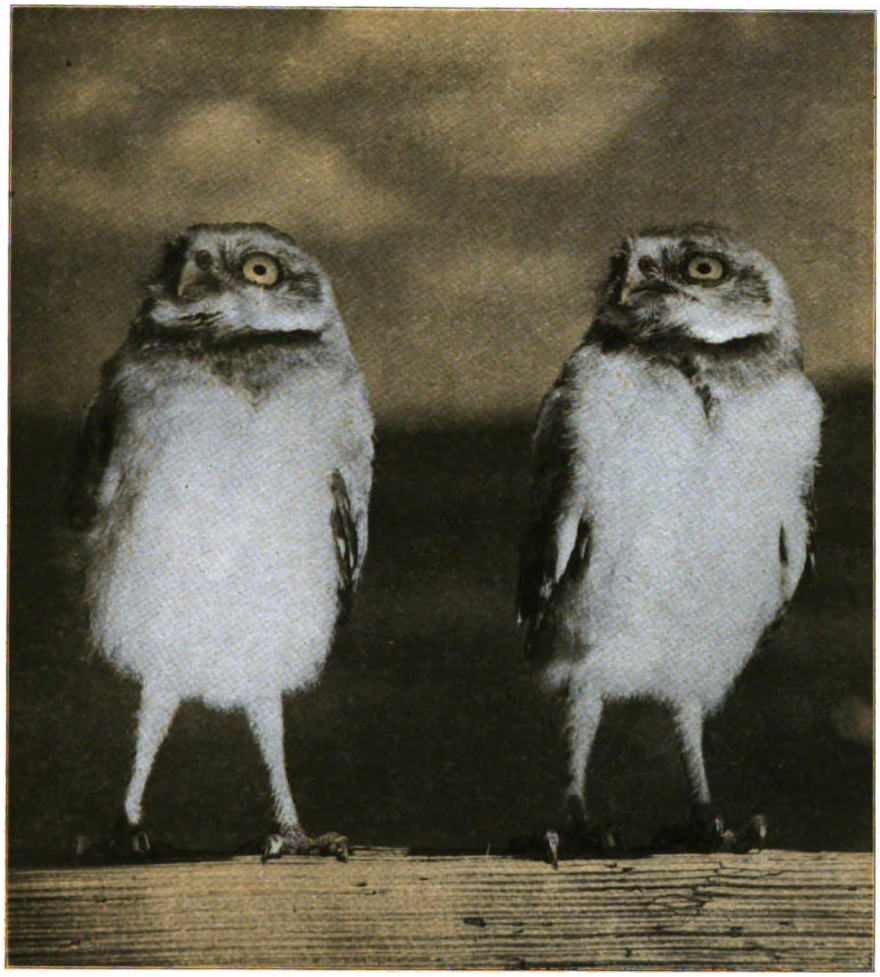

A PAIR OF YOUNG BURROWING-OWLS
This kind of owl readily kills squirrels and other mammals of its own size

cayed carcass of a hog was covered with brush so that it was invisible. It remained undiscovered by the vultures that frequently passed over the place by accident, although the stench was very strong. In another case where a freshly killed pig was hidden in the same way, the naturalist said it was traced out by the vultures by the blood which was left behind as the body was carried to its hiding place.

The food of the buzzard consists largely of carrion. Birds living on such a diet naturally bear much of the same odor. For this reason it is not likely that they would detect the odor a long distance away, much less discover fresh meat not near at hand, through their power of smell.

How often we see buzzards soaring about in the sky, some skimming just above the tree-tops and others drifting like mere specks, hardly visible to the eye. Every nook and corner of the earth below is scrutinized by hungry eyes, perhaps many times every day. The least thing new attracts attention. No movement of a living creature escapes notice.

How is it that when one buzzard finds food, the news seems to spread through miles of space to all the other buzzards in that part of the country? Does the buzzard have a sense of communication that we know not of? It is not likely that he has. The instant one bird makes a discovery, his change of movement very

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THE BARN-OWL WHO HAS AN EYE FOR NIGHT HUNTING
Its ear is developed so that it can hear a mouse as far as or farther than it can see it

likely is a signal to other birds in the sky, just as we are attracted to a person who shows unusual interest in something. This eagerness, slight as it sometimes seems, betrays the secret to other watchful eyes. And so in a natural way the news is noiselessly spread miles and miles in a short time, and birds seem to spring into existence from all sides to join the hungry crowd.

The sparrow hawk is perhaps the best known of our birds of prey, as it ranges through the entire country. Contrary to what the name might signify, this bird lives almost exclusively on insects, except where such food is difficult to obtain. Upon the treeless plains and hills throughout the West, it is a common sight to see these little falcons beating along over the waste, frequently swerving upward in flight and coming to a dead stop, as they hang suspended in the air with rapid wing-beats, looking for prey. In localities where grasshoppers are abundant, these hawks will congregate and gorge themselves continually.

During the winter, about the San Francisco Bay region where the English sparrows are plentiful, the sparrow hawks often come down into the more settled portions and catch sparrows. One day I saw one of these hawks dive into a flock of English sparrows in the yard by my window. The Englishers scattered like fragments in an explosion, but the hawk nabbed one just at the trellis over the porch. He caved in its skull with a couple of blows and sat on the post at the corner of the tennis-court and devoured his prey. I saw the same hawk about the locality several times, and often wished that I could have kept a whole flock about the yard just to clean out a lot of these pestiferous, sputtering sparrows.

Some of the unpleasant items in the bill of fare of a bird of prey are birds them-

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selves. I once found the remains of a screech-owl in the nest of a red-tailed hawk, showing that the hawk had dined on owl. There are also cases of hawk eat hawk. Perhaps the most well-known cannibal among birds is the duck-hawk. In places where this bird finds abundant prey, he catches and eats only the flesh of the head and neck and eyes of each victim, leaving the remainder of the body untouched.

A YOUNG BURROWING-OWL IN A BAD TEMPER

The red-tailed hawk is often called "chicken-hawk," but he does not deserve the name. Many of the hawks carry reputations that they do not deserve. Often people who live in the country are enemies of the hawks and owls and shoot them at every opportunity because they think the hawk is the persistent foe of poultry, whereas this is a very small part of his diet. In regions and in seasons when animal and insect food is scarce, this hawk will catch chickens and game birds, but it lives mostly on mice and shrews as well as frogs, snakes, lizards and insects of various kinds. In a prairie and hilly country, almost its entire food is squirrels, gophers, meadow-mice and rabbits.

It has been demonstrated by careful examinations of the stomachs of these hawks, carried on under the direction of the Department of Agriculture at Washington, that poultry and game-birds do not constitute more than ten per cent of their food. All the other beneficial animals preyed upon, including snakes, will not increase the proportion to fifteen per cent, so there is a balance of eighty-five per cent in favor of the red-tail. This is a fact that every gunner should remember, since the hawks destroy so many injurious rodents that they should never be shot unless in the act of stealing chickens.

Occasionally a hawk will make a mis-

A BARN-OWL JUST ALIGHTING ON A FENCE
Its wing feathers are soft fringed, so as to make flight noiseless. It catches in a night as many mice and gophers as half a dozen cats

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A YOUNG GOLDEN EAGLE IN HIS AERY
Resisting the intrusion of the camera man

take. I have the record of one of these hawks that was seen sitting on a perch watching the ground below. Suddenly he poised and dove straight for the prey. He seemed to strike squarely and began to rise with a small animal in his talons. The bird rose for thirty or forty feet, and then with a scream, he began to flutter higher and higher, circling around, and all the time feathers were dropping from his

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A YOUNG BARN-OWL IN FIGHTING ATTITUDE
It is waiting for the photographer to come within striking distance

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body. He reached a height of several hundred feet, when he began to descend rapidly and soon dropped to the ground. The hawk had pounced upon a weasel and had clutched it through the hips, but had not killed the little animal. Both the bird and his prey were dead when found. The weasel, in its death-struggle, had literally disemboweled the big bird.

The osprey is one of our noblest birds of prey. He hunts about over the rivers and lakes, living almost entirely on fish. It must be exceedingly difficult for the osprey to make his catch unless he has had experience at fishing. A fish as seen by one looking down into the water from above is very deceptive owing to the refracted light. When the fish seems to be a foot under the surface, he is often three or four feet. But the osprey, hovering over on poised wing, drops like a plummet, often completely disappearing below the surface, and in spite of the rapidity with which a fish can move, this bird is generally successful in capturing it.

A SCREECH-OWL
Taken from its hole to be photographed

As the osprey watches the lakes and rivers, so many of the hawks watch the fields and hillsides. In the wilder, mountainous regions of the West, one may occasionally see the golden eagle hunting for his prey. But the advance of civilization plays havoc with many of these wilder creatures. During the summer of 1904, we made several visits to the aery of one of these big birds. At each visit we examined the food remains and pellets about the nest, and we found a very large proportion of the eagle's food supply consisted of ground-squirrels with an occasional rabbit and quail. On one trip, we found the bodies of four ground-squirrels lying on the rim of the nest. The hills in many places were perforated with the burrows of the ground-squirrels, and the eagles seemed to have regular watch-towers on the high rocks from which they swooped down upon their quarry. If it were not for the birds of prey about these hilly districts, the places would soon be overrun with harmful rodents. Nature has provided this check for the squirrels.

I am satisfied that this family of eagles consumed an average of six ground-squirrels a day during the period of nesting, and very likely more than that. But even this low estimate would mean the destruction of five hundred and forty squirrels in about three months' time. This is the permanent home of the eagles; what would be the estimate for the entire year, and what for all the other families of hawks and owls that live along the hills and cañons?

As a family, the owls are among the most beneficial of all birds from the eco-

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A PAIR OF YOUNG GOLDEN EAGLES

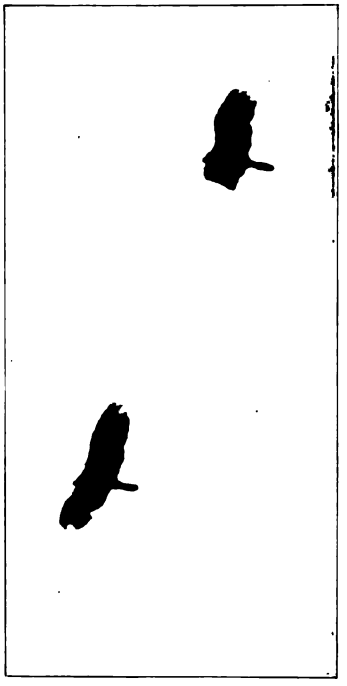
These birds are of great economic importance in California, where they destroy large numbers of ground-squirrels

nomic standpoint of the agriculturist. With few exceptions, the owls are nocturnal. Their eyes and ears are remarkably developed, and are keenest in the early hours of the night and morning. Many harmful rodents are most active in their search for food during the night, and the owls are the natural check for this multitude. The hawk hunts by day and the owl by night, and the work of one supplements that of the other.

The eye of the owl is very different from that of an eagle. The eagle is a far-sighted bird, while the owl is near-sighted and sees best to hunt his prey in the twilight of morning and evening. It is very likely that the ear of the owl is so developed that it can hear a mouse further than it can see it. Then his plumage is loose and fluffy, giving a false impression as to size, and the wing feathers are soft-fringed so as to make flight noiseless.

Some of the smaller owls are able to kill animals as large as themselves with ease and rapidity. The burrowing-owl, for instance, will pounce upon a ground-squirrel and fasten its sharp talons firmly in the neck of the rodent With. a few well-directed blows of its beak, it breaks the vertebræ of the neck, while the animal has little or no chance to resist

The owl spreads terror among the small ground folk. It is his shadow-silent wings, his sharp, sound-catching ear, and his night-piercing eye that make him the superior of the mole, the mouse, the gopher and the squirrel. He fans over the field with an ominous screech that sets a mouse scampering to his hole, but the owl's ear catches the footsteps, his wings are swift, his steel-trapped claws always ready; his drop is sure, his grip is death.



TURKEY VULTURES OR BUZZARDS

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CORPORATIONS AND THE PUBLIC

A STATEMENT

BY

LOUIS F. SWIFT

See frontispiece

There is no more vital question before the American people to-day than the relations of great corporations and the public. Criticism of huge business enterprises is easy to make and exists in abundance. What has been lacking is a frank presentation of the attitude of managers of great corporations to the public. This frank and explicit statement by Mr. Swift ought to go far toward establishing a better order of things. If such a policy as he outlines as controlling his large interests comes to be recognized as the policy of great corporations generally there will be a rapid disappearance of that misunderstanding which so threatens the stability of the commercial world.

CORPORATIONS are essential to the conduct of to-day's business.

For the business world to try to do without them would be like the public trying to do without the telephone. All of this seems to me so evident as to need no proof.

So far as the corporation of which I am president is concerned, the question to answer is not whether it has a right to be. I believe it has, and further believe the history of its development, since the time my father established a little slaughter-house in Massachusetts, is an evidence that the public believes so too.

The corporation is created by the law and deserves from the law protection from both the rabid agitator and the uninformed legislator. But at the same time, corporations have certain duties and responsibilities toward the public. Particularly is this true of a business like the packing industry which, because of its magnitude and of its relations to the country at large, might be called a semi-public institution. The public, therefore, has a very great interest in the way it is run.

I believe that a great business can be run as honestly as a small business, and that as honest and wise men, the directors of corporations should endeavor to create a better understanding between themselves and the public by every legitimate means.

As I conceive it, great corporations must, to some extent, take the public into their confidence. At least they must make it plain that they are not hostile to wise legislation and that they are really meeting their obligations to the public.

As far as Swift & Company is concerned, the following statements seem to me to express their relationship with the public:

1. The public has a right to know that every precaution has been taken to insure only wholesome meat reaching the consumer. This involves the right and desirability of having the meat inspected by the government.

2. The public has a right to know that the entire process of preparing meat, whether fresh or canned, is performed under cleanly and sanitary conditions.

3. The public has a right to demand that the prices which it pays for meat are not excessive.

4. The public has a right to know that the packers are buying material and selling products in compliance with the law.

5. The large packers are rapidly improving their plants in response to the requirements of increasing business and in compliance with the natural evolution in appliances and methods operating in all large industries. The same policy applies in the safeguard and health of

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employees. On the economic side, wages are paid that compare favorably with other lines of industry—the rates of wage in the packing business now being higher than ever before.

6. And finally, the public has a right to demand that all corporations should obey the laws in good faith in so far as they pertain to any branch of their business.

If corporations be carried on in accordance with these general principles, their relationship with the public will be far different from those which are alleged to exist by their enemies.

There must always be certain differences between the conduct of a business employing one or two men and selling to a few people in a single community and a corporation like that with which I am associated, employing between 25,000 and 30,000 men and selling goods all over the world. A large number of our employees are included in the list of 8,000 stockholders, which virtually operates on a profit-sharing basis. I believe that if the great corporations will conduct their business according to the principles given, which seem to me to be self-evidently just, these differences are wholly to the benefit of the public. It is not my purpose here to prove this point, but simply call attention to the advantages which accrue to the public in governmental inspection, which is now to be found in all great packing plants, as well as to the other great advantages in price and variety of products which result from the manufacturing process which really is the most important branch of the packing industry.

FROM NEW YORK TO BOSTON BY CANAL

BY

HUGH C. WEIR

Pictures of canals similar to the one here described will be found on pages 341-344

A GRIM gentleman was dealing with grim facts. He was a president of the Boston Chamber of Commerce. Into the palm of his left hand his clenched right hand descended with a sharp smack, as he made this startling statement:

"The entire foreign commerce of this city of Boston lies at the mercy of the railroads, and what is more we can not help ourselves!"

The speaker was right and wrong. In a span of two years, Boston's cereal exports dwindled by the staggering amount of over 20,000,000 bushels. On the seaboard side a strip of coast, which in less than twenty-five years has recorded more than one thousand wrecks, has made domestic water traffic extremely hazardous. Inland, the steel rails with their burdensome tolls have represented the sole communication with the interior of the country, and here again Nature has squarely turned her back. The rocky New England hills and ridges, conquered by the railroads only after an expenditure of millions, have barred her from even the minimum scale of overland transportation.

Such is the situation with which the New York, Brockton and Boston waterway promoters are wrestling. Even in this day of daring canal projects, topped by the $200,000,000 "ditch" at Panama, few wider-reaching possibilities can be traced in any venture than are developed from the water-way which its promoters are seeking to bore through the State of Massachusetts at a cost of nearly $1,000,000 for every mile that is dug.

A matter of but thirty miles, which even a second-class engine could cover in less than an hour, is to work wonders for the New England of to-morrow.

Right here, there is thrust upon you that series of freak geographical facts which have shackled the commercial ambitions of six states, which are responsible for the deaths of more thousands of sailors than there are centuries in United States

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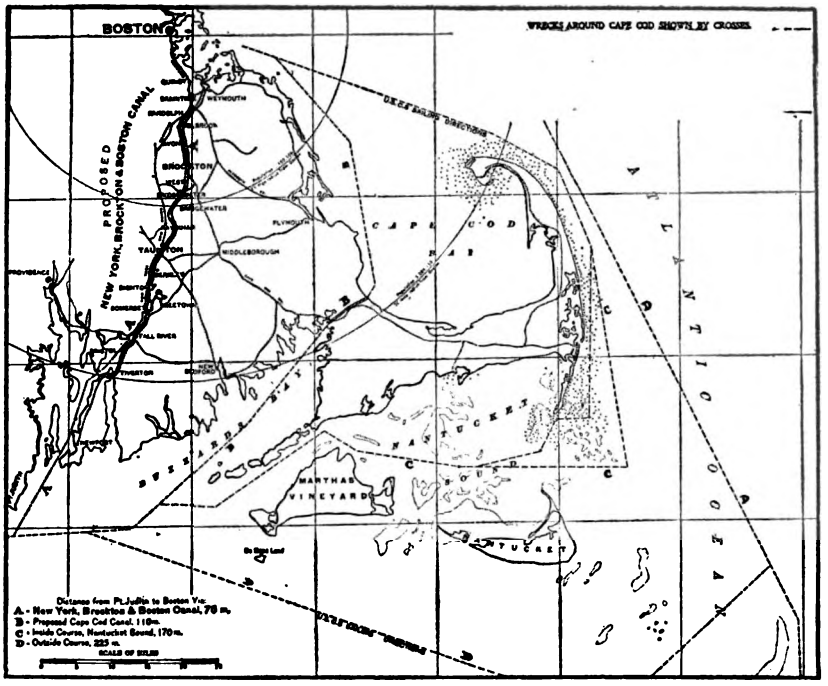

MAP SHOWING THE COURSE OF THE PROPOSED CANAL

history,—which thirty miles of digging are to set at defiance!

Massachusetts is not a large state but it shows a fair-sized breadth at every point but one. It is this point which doubles up like a clenched fist and reaches out into the ocean, as though it would hurl defiance at the waves. This is the neck of land that is distinguished by the name of Cape Cod, whose surrounding waters bear grim record as "the graveyard of the Atlantic."

Two hours' walk will enable you to cross the State of Massachusetts at this point; a span inland, where has been surveyed the course of the New York and Boston canal, thirty miles will cover the breadth of the "Old Bay State." And yet so broken and jagged is the coast line that to reach Boston Harbor from the southern extremity of the canal route, a distance of but thirty miles overland, it is necessary by water to make a wide, circular sweep out into the Atlantic, a route of 225 miles as prescribed by the sailing directions of the United States Coast Survey!

To use a not too exaggerated figure of speech, the canal proposes to cut away this stretch of shoals and rocks and sands as a surgeon would remove a sore from a sound limb. And the results of the two operations should be much the same.

As though to emphasize how temptingly near to the grasp of New England commerce Nature has held her favors, only to draw them back just beyond reach, this canal span of thirty miles will bring the ports and mills of Massachusetts and her five sister states at once into touch with the outlets of the big grain and iron and coal regions, which have been emptying their treasures in glittering heaps elsewhere.

The terminal of the proposed route is reached at the docks of Boston Harbor. At the other extremity, a line of the most favorable water communication on the entire eastern coast has mocked the merchant and the manufacturer of New England, who, less than an hour's trip by rail distant, have been forced to turn their backs on its possibilities of trade development. This route is represented by Narragansett Bay and Long Island Sound, which sweep in comparative calm to New York and the Hudson.

Here the seventy-five-year-old project

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of the State of New York, which gave birth to the Erie Canal, makes complete the line of water transportation that has brought the cargoes of the Great Lakes so near to New England states, only to dump them at the feet of their neighbors.

Boston has seen New York swamped by the exports of the grain-producing belt, has gnashed her teeth as shippers, barred from her own docks by the tariff of high overland transportation, have sought the southern ports of Baltimore, Philadelphia, Newport News and Norfolk. Helpless, she has digested the increase of New York's cereal exports from 47,000,000 to 90,000,000 bushels as her own record decreased from 35,000,000 to 13,000,000 bushels!

With an artificial route of but thirty miles, the New York and Boston Canal opens a connected series of navigable water-ways reaching from Boston Harbor inland to the chain of the Great Lakes and the Middle West. It is a project of millions, with a clear way ahead into the realm of billions.

From an engineering standpoint, the building of the proposed water-way is crammed full of curious features, emphasized even in the over-shadowing interest of the construction work of Panama. At the outset, the student of the map puts his hand on the seven-mile strip at the neck of Cape Cod, with the question which the engineers first asked.

Why would not a water-way at this point answer practically the same purpose as a thirty-mile channel involving a task four times as great at the broader breadth of the coast?

It is here that he is shown that the problems which Nature gave the sturdy New Englanders to face, did not pause at the geographical formation of the frowning coast-line. The very soil with which she built Cape Cod presents the first of the series of knotty questions which the canal engineers have been given to answer. While it juts out into the center of the most perilous strip of the Atlantic from Maine to Florida, Cape Cod itself is formed of a peculiar, sifting sand. It is a slippery, treacherous, crumbling sand which is swept by the waves and the winds into great ridges and hollows that are never the same an hour apart. The maintaining of a water-way through seven miles of this exposed sand expanse presents practically never-ending difficulties.

The shorter channel would also involve the navigation of storm-lashed Buzzards Bay, with a reputation kindred to that of its neighboring waters for foundered craft, and would leave vessels with a substantial stretch of coast yet to skirt after the canal passage before the docks of Boston Harbor could be reached. This was the original course, however, associated with the historic Cape Cod Ship Canal which has been bobbing through New England records for a period approaching the three-century-mark, until of late years it has been over-shadowed by the more ambitious inland project of the New York, Brockton and Boston water-way.

An outlay of $30,000,000 for the excavation faces the canal projectors and an additional $20,000,000 is scheduled for the finishing details of locks and wharves after the work of actual digging is completed. The summit level may reach a height of 130 feet, with fourteen locks, a depth of 25 feet, and a width of 125 feet at the bottom expanding to a distance of 200 feet at the surface. A period of ten years, it is estimated, will be needed for its completion.

So impressed with the possibilities of the water-way is the legislature of Massachusetts that the company's charter provides for a right of way 700 feet in width, piercing the richest section of the entire state. So thickly settled is this portion of New England that it is much as though the canal had been surveyed through one monster city. Fifteen towns are clustered together in a distance of less than fifty miles! Of a truth, there will be little latitude for the romance of the old-time canal. The proverbial rural view of the canal banks will be swallowed by the outlines of throbbing factories and rows of thrifty cottages.

Chief among the manufacturing centers which the canal will touch are Brockton and Fall River, from the former of which a substantial per cent of the world's shoe supply is obtained. Indeed, during the past year the shoe shipments from the port of Boston reached the astonishing total of 5,179,543 cases. On this estimate, there were shipped to other parts of the world during the year, 113,949,946 pairs of shoes, or enough to give every man,

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woman and child in the United States one pair, and leave sufficient to supply every inhabitant of Cuba, Mexico, Denmark, Greece, Switzerland and nine-tenths of Spain. And practically every pair of this vast supply was manufactured along the line of the projected canal.

It was back in 1625, when Miles Standish ruled at Plymouth, that the first mention of the Cape Cod water-way is recorded. It was the custom of the Indians to escape the angry seas on the outer rim of the coast by a portage across the sands of the cape, and the path of their patient labors suggested the canal project, which the early records of the Plymouth colony show the settlers were wont to discuss with enthusiasm at the town meetings. But the colonists found much more pressing matters for attention before the point of actual work loomed in sight. The life of the wilderness was too full of other details to afford Miles Standish or his followers leisure to dig a canal.

It was in 1690 that the project cropped up again, in definite form. This was in the deliberations of that learned body to which Massachusetts traces descent as its first General Court. With quill pen and parchment, the assembly's resolution favoring the digging of the water-way was given material shape. But the resolution reposed without disturbance. It was fated that the canal was not to be dug, even with the support of that most exalted body.

Washington realized that the American forces were in need of every aid possible and the advantages of a canal of this nature in the vicinity of Boston Harbor impressed him so vividly that he detailed engineering officers to make a survey. The abrupt change in the scene of the war, however, following the early years of the struggle, shelved the plans. They were not long neglected, in spite of this fact.

In the first years of peace, the General Court of Massachusetts considered the project again and in an eloquent proclamation promised "aid and comfort" to any individuals who would undertake the enterprise.

The dangers of the rugged coast were beginning to emphasize themselves vividly as the scope of New England's foreign trade broadened. To such an extent did Cape Cod's grim record of maritime disasters grow that a humane society was formed, whose object was the erection of huts along the wind-swept shore where huge placards told shipwrecked sailors food and shelter could be found. A time-yellowed volume may be seen in the Boston Public Library bearing the date of 1802 on its torn fly-leaf, whose musty pages give a graphic description of the work of this organization.

It was not until the second war with England had quickened public sentiment, however, that a canal colony was formed, but its career proved to be short-lived. Engineering difficulties over-awed the projectors and the company died, without a spade being driven into the ground.

The more recent history of the Cape Cod water-way dates from the early sixties and covers the better part of half a century of plans and specifications and even actual excavations, but never material action. Always the difficulties which the apparently simple project thrust forward when work was begun, proved a fatal stumbling-block. It is doubtful if another public project in American history can be found with as checkered a record.

At one time, an excavation of seven-eighths of a mile was made, and stakes became so numerous across the cape, setting off various options, that it was said a person could not take a walk on a dark night without falling over one of them. All the while the winter surf boomed defiance, the ghastly wreck statistics grew in volume, and the railroads' grip on New England tightened.

It needed a complete change of plans and a more substantial route to top the three-century-record of failure with success. It was thus that the present New York, Brockton and Boston water-way was born. Coupled with the enterprise are the names of nearly a score of the most substantial men in New England, who have been foremost both in her civic and commercial development. At the head of the project is Colonel John Jay Whipple, of Brockton and Boston, for twenty-five years financier, bank president and legislator.

It is a significant fact that, unlike the majority of American artificial waterways, the New York and Boston canal is

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to be built entirely without state or national aid. In practically all of the great canals of this country, government finances either entirely or in part furnished the necessary funds. Over $20,000,000 is expended by the national government annually in river and harbor improvements, and a vigorous effort is being made to increase the appropriation to $50,000,000. But in spite of these vast sums, the new projected water-way is to be engineered entirely without governmental assistance.

Shortly after the close of the Spanish War, a grizzled major of the United States army, who has seen active service at almost every point of the compass, was emphasizing some startling features of American war-time defenses.

"You may recall the report at one time that the Spanish fleet was going to besiege Boston," he said reflectively. "Well, it was not so wild a rumor as might appear. As a matter of fact, from the standpoint of military strategy, the idea was an excellent one, if the Spaniards could have taken advantage of it. The port of Boston represents the very center of New England commercial life. Bottle it up with a hostile blockading fleet, and the industries of half a dozen states would be at the mercy of the enemy. Not only this, but the rest of the country, more or less directly, would feel the blow as well.

"At Boston, you put your hand on the weak point of our Atlantic coast defenses. With absolutely no outlet, the vessels in her harbor could be imprisoned as effectually as a butterfly in a corked bottle! Nature has made Boston a great seaport, but stopped with a quarter of her work unfinished. The outlet which she failed to provide,"—the Major paused significantly,—"the War Department should construct!"

But as it happens, it remains for the New York, Brockton and Boston Canal to save the War Department the task.

THE MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP OF ELECTRIC LIGHT PLANTS

BY

JAMES R. CRAVATH

WESTERN EDITOR OF "THE ELECTRICAL WORLD"

DOES it pay a city to go into the electric light business? Should it own its street-lighting plant or should it let the contract to a private company? These are questions which have perplexed the voters in many towns. The average citizen who pays the taxes needs only to have the evidence on both sides laid fully before him to decide and vote in the way most favorable to his pocketbook. His difficulty usually is to get the evidence. On the one hand, if the most radical advocates of municipal ownership are to be believed, the electric-lighting companies of the country are earning enormous profits, which under municipal ownership would stay with the taxpayers and consumers. On the other hand, according to some of those opposed to municipal ownership, such ownership has a record of dismal failures, mismanagement and graft. The majority of thoughtful citizens who belong to neither of these two radical classes are looking for the truth, which (as usual in such arguments) lies somewhere between the two extremes. I will aim to present in an unprejudiced way some of the essential facts on both sides, as observed during many years' work and familiarity with the electric light and power industry of the country, both as carried on by cities and by private corporations.

In the case of a large number of the

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electric light plants owned by municipalities in the United States, the question of city versus private ownership was never an issue, for the reason that the towns are so small and the profits so uncertain that if the city did not build the plant no one else would. These we must evidently leave out of account in our discussion. What, then, are the objects sought by a city which establishes its own electric light plant if private capital has embarked, or is willing to embark in the enterprise? Evidently to save money for the taxpayers or to get better service.

The Question of Profits

The common argument, of course, for the establishment of a municipal plant is that the city will gain the profits which ordinarily go to a private company undertaking a street-lighting contract. But what are the profits actually earned by electric light and power companies through the country?

Whether an electric light plant is built by the city or by a company, interest should be paid on the investment. If we assume that a large part of the cost of construction is paid by issuing bonds, it is undoubtedly true as claimed by municipal ownership advocates that a city can sell bonds bearing a lower rate of interest than could a private corporation doing the same business. It will be evident, however, that a difference of one or two per cent in bond interest on a plant may easily be counterbalanced by other factors, such as the rate of wages paid and the efficiency of the management.

It is of first importance to determine in this connection the actual profits being made by electric light and power companies over and above the common rates of interest paid on municipal bonds. If such profits or dividends are considerably above interest rates on municipal bonds, we have at once a strong incentive for municipalities to enter into electric lighting business themselves. Otherwise one great argument for municipalization disappears.

Unfortunately there are no figures available on the financial condition of electric lighting companies the country over, and we must fall back upon our general knowledge of the business and the statistics of a few localities. The State of Massachusetts for twenty years past has had an excellent system of regulating electric light companies and municipal plants and safeguarding the interests of both stockholders and public. Yearly reports are made to a board of gas and electric light commissioners, both by private companies and municipal plants. We have therefore from Massachusetts more complete information as to the state of the industry than from any other state or locality. We can place more confidence in the reports of this commission than in most of the other statistics cited in connection with municipal ownership controversies, for the reason that the methods of classifying accounts and making reports as well as the issuance of stock and bonds are controlled by the commission according to certain uniform regulations, and have been for many years. Companies and municipalities not required to report according to such fixed rules, if they issue reports of their financial conditions at all, issue them in such various shapes that no one but an expert can analyze them in a way to afford a true comparison, and frequently even an expert can not make such comparison without actual further examination of the books.

In Massachusetts, according to the 1905 report of the commissioners, of the fifty-six purely electric light and power companies in the state, twenty-four paid no dividends; one paid a dividend of two per cent; one a dividend of four per cent; one a dividend of 4.5 per cent; four a dividend of five per cent; eleven a dividend of six per cent; three a dividend of seven per cent; eight a dividend of eight per cent; one a dividend of nine per cent, and two paid dividends of ten per cent. In some states with some kinds of corporations these statistics on dividends would give little indication of the per cent of earnings on the actual investment, because of the common practice of issuing watered stock for which but a small per cent of the face value has been paid. In Massachusetts, however, where securities for many years past have been issued only upon approval of the commission, to pay for actual improvements in a plant, these figures can safely be accepted as indicating very nearly the

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true state of affairs. This statement as to dividends, of course, does not show what earnings may be put back into the property in the shape of new construction and extensions. In this latter connection it is of interest to note that the combined balance sheets of the Massachusetts companies show a surplus of 10.76 per cent on the entire capital stock, in the 1905 report, but this is less than the surplus showed the year previous.

These figures simply demonstrate what is known to every well-posted man in the business: namely, that electric light companies, when well managed and if in sufficiently large towns, can be reasonably expected to pay the usual prevailing rates of interest on investment, and in some cases a little more than that, but that there are plenty of companies which either for the lack of good management or for some local reason are earning practically nothing. There is certainly nothing in these figures to indicate that enormous profits are to be pocketed by taxpayers as a result of a municipal electric light plant.

Rates of Municipal and Private Companies

But are the street lighting rates in the Massachusetts cities served by private companies the same as those where there are municipally-owned plants? Consulting the Massachusetts report further to determine this point, we find that the rates per year for arc lamps commonly rated as 1200 c.p. are from $104, the highest rate, to $54.69, the lowest. In municipal plants the cost of such lamps is given as from $133, the highest, to $53.34, the lowest. In the Massachusetts figures, of course, interest on the investment is included, as it should be in all such reports. Taken altogether, the cost of street lighting by municipal plants in Massachusetts is not strikingly different from that in cities supplied by private companies, although the highest municipal figures are considerably above the highest contract figures.

The reason that these Massachusetts figures on costs of municipal lights do not correspond with some which we see quoted by radical municipal ownership advocates on plants in other states is that in Massachusetts the law requires that an allowance of five per cent of the cost of the plant shall be made yearly for depreciation. This allowance is certainly none too much, and in some cases is too little, but it is frequently left out of account altogether in figuring the cost of municipal lighting on a plant owned by a city.

Another set of statistics which throw some light on the amount of profit in electric lighting business in general is obtainable from a report made by the secretary of the Iowa Electrical Association to that body in 1906. The secretary obtained reports from seventy-seven electric light companies in that state. The average dividend was 2.95 per cent.

New York state also has had for a short time a gas and electric light commission under laws similar to those in Massachusetts. The returns made indicate in general a very similar condition of affairs to that in Massachusetts. On the whole, from my knowledge of the business the country over, I think the Massachusetts figures would correspond closely to those in the majority of other states, were the figures known, except that a very limited number of companies may temporarily earn a little better than ten per cent.

I have so far considered this question of financial returns only in a general way, without taking up specific examples. For those who wish to study such specific examples the published reports of the Massachusetts and New York commissions are open. As the former reports are made on uniform systems of accounting, comparisons can fairly be made between the different companies and municipalities reporting. Specific examples from other states have been cited many times in municipal-ownership controversies, but because of the great differences in methods of accounting, as before explained, they are likely to be almost worthless for purposes of comparison unless scrutinized closely by experts.

Chicago and Muncie

One of the most prominent examples of a municipally-owned electric light plant is that of Chicago, about which there has been considerable controversy. Chicago's municipal electric light plant, unlike many others, was not built by the sale of bonds, but has been paid for a little at a time out of the general tax

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levy as the plant has been gradually enlarged. According to the last published report of the city electrician, in which interest on the money was figured in both cases, there has been a saving to the city of something like ten per cent in the total cost of street lighting for the entire period of eighteen years the city plant has been in operation. This statement, however, assumes that the cost per lamp under a private contract would have been the same as the city has been paying a company for a few rented lamps in widely scattered outlying districts where the city could not operate as cheaply. As to whether Chicago would have had to pay for a large number of electric street lamps as much as it has been paying for a comparatively small number of scattered lamps on short and uncertain contracts, is, of course, problematical.

According to Haskins & Sells, expert accountants, who went through the Chicago lighting accounts about six years ago, the operating cost of a municipal 450-watt arc lamp in the city of Chicago in the year 1900 was $62.09; and the total cost, including water, insurance, taxes, depreciation and interest charges was $99.08. Allowing for certain items, over which there may be controversy, it is safe to say that the cost per lamp was over $90, including fixed charges, which is not far from the average paid in other great cities. The rate paid for similar lamps in New York city is $100, but coal and distribution investments are higher in New York.

Chicago has what might be rated as one of the relatively successful municipal plants. Among the decidedly unsuccessful ones, a conspicuous example was that at Muncie, Indiana. This city had a municipal street-lighting plant which cost $36,000. In eleven years, under council committee management (or lack of it), the operating cost per lamp nearly doubled. The superintendent, in his annual report made before the final demise of the enterprise, recommended that if the city could not find the money with which to improve the plant, it had better sell to private parties, or buy current from some private company. The matter was brought to a head by the bursting of a fly-wheel in the municipal plant and the wrecking of the station. A ten-year contract was then made with the electric light company to supply street lamps at a cost far below the operating cost shown by the yearly reports of the municipal plant. The municipal plant, upon which $36,000 had been expended in construction, was valued by a board of appraisers at $15,000, or a depreciation of $21,000, with no fund to provide for it.

Management the Vital Matter

I might go on and cite numerous cases of disastrous municipal electric-light plant ventures and I might also cite some cases of well managed and successful municipal plants.

If a proper depreciation account is not kept and a municipal plant is not insured for its actual value, it is the whole body of taxpayers who suffer when the plant is destroyed by accident. When a company gives poor service or charges high rates, the public at large will be much more benefited by taking measures to secure adequate control of the offending company than they will by trying to take over the business of the company, the difficulty of whose operation is not known.

In the case of both private and municipal plants, the margin of profit is small enough for good or bad management to throw the balance one way or the other. But with this difference: If the private plant is mismanaged it is no concern of the taxpayer; it concerns only stockholders. Under a contract with a private company for street lighting at a reasonably low rate, the taxpayer takes no risk save a possibility of paying a small percentage more for given services than he would pay if the city ran the plant. If the city owns the plant, he may get his street lighting for a little less than he would pay the private company, but with the tolerable certainty that if there is grafting or incompetency in the management of the plant, he will pay a good deal more. In fact, it is a kind of one-sided speculation except, of course, where reasonable rates can not be obtained from a private company. The taxpayers of a city usually, therefore, should think several times before embarking in such enterprises.

The Energy of Private Management

As the management of municipal electric light plants is such an important fac-

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tor in determining whether it is a losing proposition or not, let us inquire into the possibilities for good or bad management in connection with it. I am not one of those who believe that municipal management is necessarily and invariably incompetent. This is disproved by a number of cases where municipal enterprises were well managed. But there are certain things in American municipal affairs to which we can not shut our eyes, however much we may hope to change them within the next twenty-five years. The war against graft in municipal politics has been making considerable headway the past ten years, and we may hope to see it make even better headway the coming ten years; nevertheless graft is a factor to be considered.

The fact is that at the present time it is as a rule difficult to get the best class of men for the management of municipal enterprises. Why? In the first place, a man of ability and ambition will usually prefer to work for a private corporation where opportunities for advancement and appreciation of ability are better than in municipal service, and where he is more certain of his position. The man working for a municipality is altogether uncertain as to his future or as to the competency or incompetency of the council committees to which he may be responsible. As he is working for the public, he is subject to all sorts of criticisms to which an officer in a private corporation is not subject, and may even be suspected of grafting because he is a city employee and for no other reason. These things, no doubt, account for the fact that comparatively few men of promise in the electric lighting industry of the country are to be found in municipal plants. In my personal experience on the editorial staff of a paper devoted to the electric lighting industry and in traveling among such plants, I almost invariably find that the up-to-date, progressive and aggressive management which contributes to the general progress of the art is to be found in private rather than municipal plants.

Graft and Public Ownership

The advocates of municipal ownership have laid considerable stress on the possibility for corruption of city councils and other officers in connection with the letting of the street-lighting contracts or franchises to private companies. That there are such possibilities, especially in the larger cities, no one will deny. On the other hand, is it not likely that a city government composed of rascals would find even more opportunity for robbing the taxpayer under municipal ownership? In the case of a private contract the amount is definitely known to every one at the time the contract is made, and if there is anything very unreasonable about the proposition, public sentiment will enforce reasonable terms before the contract is signed. When the public utility is municipally owned, it is a difficult matter to locate and prevent graft both large and small.

Space is not available here to cite specific examples of successful and unsuccessful municipal plants at any length, but I may mention a few of the extremes. One of the most successful municipal plants I know of is that at Marquette, Michigan, where the city developed a water-power. The property is managed much like that of a private company. Considerable power load is carried. So enterprising has been the management that the gross earnings from operation, according to the annual reports, are as high as $4.20 per capita of population. Most private companies are not doing as well as to gross earnings. The lighting department of the city is kept separate from all others, just as if it were a company, and it is paid $75 per year for a 2000-c.p. arc lamp. For the balance of the revenue the management of the plant is dependent on its own enterprise. Chicago's plant is mentioned elsewhere. Detroit's municipal plant may also be rated among the more successful. While lamp costs in Chicago and Detroit are nowhere near as low as advertised by municipal ownership advocates in years past, they are not far from prevailing contract rates.

Failures of Municipal Plants

Among recent municipal ownership failures may be enumerated Muncie, Indiana, mentioned elsewhere, plant abandoned, and bonds not paid off; La Grange, Illinois, plant sold to a company; Elgin, Illinois, municipal costs so

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high that contract was let to company; Jonesboro, Indiana, plant turned over to bondholders; Alexandria, Virginia, plant leased to a company for thirty years; Ashtabula, Ohio, $88,000 plant depreciated $50,000 in fourteen years, advertised for sale; Brunswick, Missouri, plant sold for thirty-five cents on the dollar, city taking pay in light and water; Casselton, North Dakota, plant sold for two-fifths cost; Siloam Springs, Arkansas, $30,000 plant leased for $600 per year; Peru, Indiana, council investigating committee found arc lamps cost $207 per year and advised that the city abandon the business and sell the plant; Linton, Indiana, plant leased for five years; Hamilton, Ohio, gas plant shut down and state examiner reported deplorable financial conditions and abnormal costs due to faulty construction in electric light plant; Bloomington, Illinois, increase from $58 to $65 in yearly cost of arc lamps in ten years, although cost should have been less; Easton, Pennsylvania, mayor favors letting of private contract if city can not maintain better service, and business men petition for such a contract; Lakewood, Ohio, expert accountant found cost of arc lamps about double the price offered by a private company.

Conclusion

What conditions will be twenty-five years from now, I do not know, but I hope and believe that they will be more favorable for municipal enterprises. In the meantime I am willing to let the private corporations take the risks and the profits wherever they can and will give reasonable rates and good service.

THE REFLECTIONS OF A LAYMAN ON VIVISECTION

BY

JAMES ROWLAND ANGELL

AUTHOR OF "PSYCHOLOGY," ETC.

THE public mind has been much agitated of late by one of the periodical outbursts of excitement over vivisection. Recent history in Great Britain and in the United States would indicate that this particular form of popular perturbation is likely to be recurrent and that it is subject to many of the symptoms of epidemic. It seems worth while, therefore, to take stock of certain of the important considerations which ought to determine the attitude of the fair-minded and intelligent citizen. The writer speaks as a layman interested to recognize on the one hand the high-minded and humane sentiments which inspire the opponents of vivisection, as well as the facts which call forth those sentiments, and on the other hand the facts and principles which support the equally high-minded defenders of that practice. It is fair to the reader to say at once that the author feels that the highest humanitarianism justifies vivisection as it is commonly practiced, but he has tried to do full justice to the contentions of those who disagree with him.

If one would attain an impartial, dispassionate and discerning view of the merits of the case, one must disabuse the mind of certain vicious presuppositions which usually characterize the attitude of the extremists in both parties.

In the first place one must recognize that not every opponent of vivisection is a sentimental fool or a meddling ignoramus. There are plenty of persons of general intelligence who seriously object to vivisection on purely empirical

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grounds. They urge that the results simply do not warrant the suffering which they believe arises from it. And whether their facts be sound or not, they are at least put forward seriously and must be controverted by other facts, not by mere invective.

Equally essential is it to recognize that among the most stanch defenders of vivisection are men of the highest intelligence and integrity, whose lives constitute the most splendid monuments to the spirit of self-sacrificing and sympathetic humanity. To decry all vivisectionists as monsters of cruelty would be contemptibly libelous if it were not wholly ridiculous. Yet not a few loud-voiced persons permit themselves this diversion. Obviously it behooves one seeking a sane judgment on the issue to turn a deaf ear to shrill abuse of every kind, whether it emanate from the "pros" or the "antis."

The question which underlies the whole ethical and humanitarian problem at stake can be phrased in this way:

Under what conditions is man justified in causing suffering to animals? The issue of fact as to how far suffering *is actually* caused by vivisectional and experimental methods we shall consider later. Mankind has given the most various answers to this question.

At one extreme is the defender of the sanctity of all animal life, the ethico-religious vegetarian as distinct from the dietetic vegetarian. We find advocates of this creed in the remotest antiquity and there has probably never been a time nor a civilized race in which it lacked disciples. The Buddhists and Hindus number among their ranks perhaps the most striking contemporary exemplars of the distinctively religious embodiment of the principle. They urge that man has no more right to take animal life, or to cause pain in the animal world than he has to accord similar treatment to human beings. The view is commonly based upon a belief in the transmigration of souls with its accompanying doctrine that human souls may reappear in animal bodies.

One who knows how difficult it is to determine where mind disappears in the lower animal forms, if indeed it disappears at all, and how impossible it is to draw any sharp line of distinction between the plant and the animal world, will appreciate that on strictly logical grounds advocates of this view ought to abstain from injury to any form of life whatever, whether plant or animal. The dietetic inconvenience of this corrolary with its reduction of the bill of fare to a largely mineral form will perhaps prevent its acceptance. But on the basis of the principle ordinarily put forth by this ethical branch of vegetarianism no other course is wholly safe.

At the other extreme is the practice of certain primitive peoples by whom animals are regarded as wholly subservient to human caprice. The ruthless disregard of any suffering inflicted by man on the brutes finds its parallel among such peoples in their equally striking insensitiveness to human suffering itself.

Undoubtedly the theory as well as the practice of the great mass of mankind falls in between these two extremes. The alleged necessities of man are held to justify the slaughter of animals, and their suffering is held defensible provided it can be plausibly maintained that an equal amount of human suffering is thereby prevented, or that in any important way men are bettered thereby.

As a matter of fact the practical working of this creed is full of contradictions and compromises. The public is shocked beyond measure at the atrocities of a totally anæsthetic operation on a rat, while it accepts without the quiver of an eyelid the widespread use of poisons which presumably cost other rats prolonged agony, and the use of traps which crush limbs and hold their victims thus imprisoned for hours before the captor comes to dispatch the sufferer. A scientist is hounded through the press as a devil incarnate for inoculating animals with deadly diseases in the search for preventives of disease in mankind, while the pleasure-seeking sportsman who grievously wounds birds, animals and fishes in the unsuccessful effort to slaughter them for his own amusement, thereby causing untold suffering, is accepted by society as a fine clean-minded citizen, often elected to high office and lauded for his exploits as a Nimrod and an exponent of the wholesome outdoor life.

The scientist who experiments upon an anæsthetized dog in order to perfect his

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technique for the performance of surgical operations on human beings, is likely to find himself assailed as a heartless brute, while the explorer in search of the North pole, that crying need of modern civilization, may slaughter a regiment of dogs by fatigue and starvation and get only public encomiums for his heroism.

All things considered, the attitude of men in these matters is not materially more consistent than that of the small boy who cherishes with superhuman devotion the welfare of his pet cat, whose slightest injury he resents with violence, what time he cheerfully shies a brick at the neighbor's pussy, thereby with precision and pain bringing that innocent feline to earth.

One might carry out indefinitely the list of indignities to animals which people accept with greater or less equanimity, but innumerable examples will suggest themselves to any thoughtful person. As illustrations of the various degrees of cruelty which society generally tolerates as a matter of course may be mentioned cruel bits, high check-reins and bobbed tails for horses, the dehorning and branding of cattle, and for practically all the larger domestic animals the agony of castration. And let it not be forgotten that anæsthetics play no part in these affairs.

It seems safe to conclude from these considerations that our practice in the matter of animal treatment is controlled by custom and tradition rather than by intelligent judgment. To be sure no wrong is made right simply because of its frequency, but before we adopt an attitude either of condemnation or approval of vivisection it seems judicious to secure a measure of consistency in the views we hold upon such immediately related questions as are involved in the habits to which we have referred.

Is it, for example, a sufficient justification of hunting for pleasure that by means of the process the hunter is renovated in body and mind? Can not his renovation be secured by methods less productive of animal misery; and if we admit the justification of hunting with its alleged benefits to the single individual, can we object to those forms of vivisection which have as their object the bettering of the whole human race, or, as in many cases, the amelioration of animal existence itself? No doubt there will always be those who will urge the entire exemption of animal life from human assaults, although it is a little hard to see how the mosquitoes which propagate yellow fever and malaria can make out their case for an immunity bath.

The rank and file of us who think the demands of man justly superior to those of the animals, must see to it that we come to some reasonable agreement with ourselves as to what we believe, and then look to it that we apply our convictions consistently and impartially. It will not do to defame the sincere believer in the ultimately humanitarian character of vivisection, while we condone the much more painful and unnecessary practices which are essentially universal in the common treatment of animals.

One may not sympathize with the ultra-humanitarian view of the anti-vivisectionist, or one may feel that this view as advocated is in the long run antagonistic to the really humane. On the other hand one may sincerely believe vivisection and all other forms of suffering inflicted by men upon animals to be needless and wrong. The only thing which is intolerable is the rank inconsistency that is oblivious to the familiar, the widespread and well-established sources of animal suffering such as we have mentioned, while it is hypersensitive to the new, the infrequent and the often misunderstood sources represented by the practices of the experimentalist.

It would undoubtedly be impossible within the limits of this paper to canvass all the objections which have been made to vivisection. But it is entirely feasible to mention certain of those most persistently urged.

The strongest argument, if it be valid at all, and the one of most universal applicability, is moral. Vivisection, it is said, is inevitably brutalizing to those who indulge in it, and even if good ultimately flows from the practice, the price paid is too high. No one can without moral debasement allow other beings to suffer for his own benefit, or force them to suffer involuntarily for the benefit of others. For reply to this criticism, which obviously falls into two divisions, one must largely appeal to facts.

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In regard to the first point it seems to the writer altogether plausible that in one sense vivisectional practices should tend to benumb the sympathetic emotions. Anything which we do repeatedly loses in time much of its emotional coloring. Were this not fortunately the case, few surgeons could long withstand the nervous strain of their humanitarian profession. But to say that in practical ways one becomes careless toward suffering and oblivious to pain simply because one ceases to feel the old emotional excitement, is quite another assertion; and to add that vivisectionists as a class are cruel and heartless is a malicious slander which finds no real justification in a survey of the actual facts. No doubt there may be an occasional surgeon who is unduly callous to the suffering of his patients, and the same thing is perhaps true of the occasional vivisectionist; but certainly in all the great laboratories where vivisectional experiments are conducted the utmost care is employed to lessen or prevent pain. Indeed, in many instances the success of the experiment must hinge on the degree to which this result is attained.

The second part of the argument rests on ultimate ethical ideals which can not be discussed in this paper. If it be held that one can not inflict pain on any creature without moral turpitude, the position is not to be curtly gainsaid. It should be borne in mind, however, that the infliction of mental pain is equally evil, and one may be permitted to point out that such a doctrine conscientiously applied would promptly create universal vegetarianism. Moreover, as the writer suggested in an earlier paragraph, it may be fairly urged that the defenders of this view, if they would be wholly secure in their practice, should respect plant life as well as animal life.

The argument is often advanced in a qualified form already mentioned, which corresponds closely to the view of the average thoughtful person, but it loses practically all value as an argument against vivisection. It is held, for example, that we are only justified in tampering with animal life in so far as human suffering is thereby relieved, or greater animal suffering prevented. If this be interpreted to mean "immediately relieved or prevented," very little of vivisection could be defended. But in the long run all such experimentation has as its aim the increase of knowledge, and this in turn is always sure ultimately to improve the conditions of life both for man and beast.

A second main argument is that medical and scientific men are entirely disagreed among themselves about the merits of the case, and anti-vivisectionist literature is full of statements from persons who sign themselves M. D. Over against this is to be set the fact that the great associations of physicians and naturalists have expressed themselves repeatedly in the most outspoken way in defense of the necessity for and the humanitarian character of vivisection and animal experimentation. The writer can not find that among professional men of modern scientific training there is any substantial variation of opinion on the principle involved.

The third criticism is that the results of these practices have been of little or no value to medicine and science. It is difficult to understand how this statement can be made by any one of intelligence and honesty. It is so grotesquely untrue that a detailed refutation is not needed. Indeed, a detailed recital of the advancement of science and medicine brought about by animal experimentation would overflow this whole volume of THE WORLD TO-DAY. Subtract from modern medicine and modern physiology — not to mention others of the biological sciences — the knowledge gained from such sources, and the remainder would take us back to mediæval conditions.

Owing to the difficulty of making statements about biological science readily intelligible to the general public, we may forego any effort to indicate the gain to these sciences from such sources. But a brief and wholly incomplete catalogue of certain important medical results may be given. These results could not have been attained otherwise, unless human beings had been the subject of experiment. This catalogue overlooks many important contributions to veterinary medicine with their untold lessening of animal disease and suffering. The writer need not comment upon the commercial aspect of this part of the case, involving as it does the

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annual saving to owners of live stock of enormous amounts of money.

An understanding of the nature and cause of infection has been obtained in the following diseases and in certain instances a remedy has thus been already discovered: Tuberculosis, diphtheria,* lockjaw, anthrax or splenic fever, glanders, Malta fever, bubonic plague, various blood-poisoning diseases, sleeping sickness, typhoid fever, dysentery, etc.

In the early part of this paper reference was made to the question as to how much suffering vivisectional and experimental methods actually caused. Now it can not be denied that some forms of experiment are painful. But it certainly can be said with every assurance that under modern methods nothing reasonable is left undone to lessen or wholly prevent, by anæsthetics, the suffering of needless pain.

Moreover, it certainly can be maintained that the pain caused to animals in such work is generally negligible as compared with that which they suffer under the vicissitudes of life in a state of nature. From this point of view, the question comes to this: Shall they suffer the pains, often excruciating, of a natural life and death without advantage to any one, or shall they suffer, often much less, for the ultimate benefit of humanity and their own brute relatives? Is not the higher and truer humanitarianism that which by virtue of a relatively small amount of present pain achieves the abolition for untold generations of certain future suffering?

Undoubtedly the portion of vivisectional practice with which the general public feels least sympathy is that which is apparently not concerned with the direct betterment of medical procedure, but with the enlargement of biological knowledge, both physiological and psychological. For a fair discussion of this case a longer paper than the present would be required and a more extended scientific education than is possessed by the average reader. One who does not know algebra can hardly be made to understand calculus, and the necessities for experimental work on animals are often difficult to make clear to one innocent of any training in biological science. Even when some approach to such an appreciation is gained, it may leave the inquirer in the position of those who so pertinaciously insist that the test of value in any discovery shall be its immediate and obvious utility.

Notwithstanding the fact that many of the most important scientific discoveries have resulted from researches made without any interest whatever in their direct practical significance, there will always be narrow-minded and ignorant persons who will wish to test all scientific achievement by that touchstone. If their contention should prevail, a large part of all scientific investigation would be checked and a considerable part of the experiments on animals along with it. But it is hardly conceivable that in an enlightened country like our own such intellectual bigotry should prevail. The only condition for intellectual progress is intellectual freedom.

It is to be hoped that the prevention of possible abuses in this vivisectional field will be attempted through the education and enlightenment of public opinion, rather than through legislation such as that which in England has resulted in the driving of many of her scientists to the continent to work. Legislation, unless it be essentially prohibitive of much which is most essential, can accomplish very little. Moreover, when it falls short of prohibition, it is likely to be unintelligent and merely exasperating, like the oft-proposed requirement that animals used for producing serum for diphtheria and vaccine for smallpox shall be anæsthetized.

The writer does not believe that serious abuses exist in this country. But even if abuses do exist, publicity is a far more efficient remedy than legislation and is accompanied with far less disastrous consequences. The men engaged in vivisectional work are certainly for the most part high-minded, humane men who can be trusted to cause no suffering that has not a serious justification, such as would approve itself to any one sufficiently well-informed fully to understand the issue.

*NOTE.—In the city of Chicago the death rate from diphtheria during the years 1886-96 was 9.8 per 10,000. In the decade from 1896-1906, when antitoxin has been generally used, the rate has been 3.9 per 10,000. Nine thousand seven hundred more persons would have died in Chicago from diphtheria during this decade had antitoxin not been discovered by experiments on animals.

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HARRY PRATT JUDSON

THE NEW PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

BY

SHAILER MATHEWS

THE promotion of Harry Pratt Judson to the presidency of the University of Chicago was at once a tribute to him and an evidence of a new stage in the development of the institution.

It is now almost precisely two years that Dr. Judson has been the vicarious administrator of the growing university. Throughout the year in which President Harper was forced to surrender responsibility after responsibility, Dr. Judson stood ready to take up whatever his heroic chief laid down. When Dr. Harper's tragic struggle ended, the institution had unconsciously "found itself" under the administration of a member of one of its faculties.

Unique as has been the history of the University of Chicago, in nothing has it more defied precedent than in this: centered as it has been about the personality of its first president, it finds itself, if possible, stronger under his successor. It is a tribute alike to the stability of the institution, to the genius of Dr. Harper, and to the self-effacing loyalty of his friend and successor.

President Judson is essentially an educator. Born in 1849, he graduated in 1870 from Williams College. For the next fifteen years he was teacher and principal in high school in Troy, New York. Then for seven years he was Professor of History in the University of Minnesota. He was one of the first three men appointed by President Harper at the foundation of the University of Chicago, and has been Dean of its Graduate Faculty and, subsequently, of the faculties of Arts, Literature and Science. For the past year he has been its Acting-President. He has published a number of volumes on United States history and politics. In entering upon his new office he perpetuates the precedent set by Dr. Harper in that he is teaching rather than an exclusively administrative president.

No man has been more intimately associated with the university of which he is now the head, than Dr. Judson. He has grown with its growth and in a very true sense is a creature of its history. From every point of view it is fortunate that the university which has instituted so many of the newer phases of higher education, and which even now is marked by a uniqueness of organization and calendar, and even more of spirit, should continue to be under the guidance of one who so thoroughly understands its spirit, and who has himself had so large a share in setting the precedents established during the fifteen years of its existence. There is no need of its educating its leader.

But President Judson can be counted upon to be something more than an imitator of President Harper. He has his predecessor's devotion to the fundamentals of scholarship both on the side of research and that of teaching, as well as hearty sympathy with the established policy of the institution; but he has also independent judgment and administrative ability of the highest sort.

With the cordial good feeling which exists between the new President and his old friends on the faculties, the University of Chicago furnishes a striking exception to the general rule that to promote a member of a faculty of an institution to its presidency is to put a premium upon divided counsels.

Under President Judson the university expects still greater intensive and extensive growth and an ever-increasing expression of its maturing corporate consciousness and spirit.

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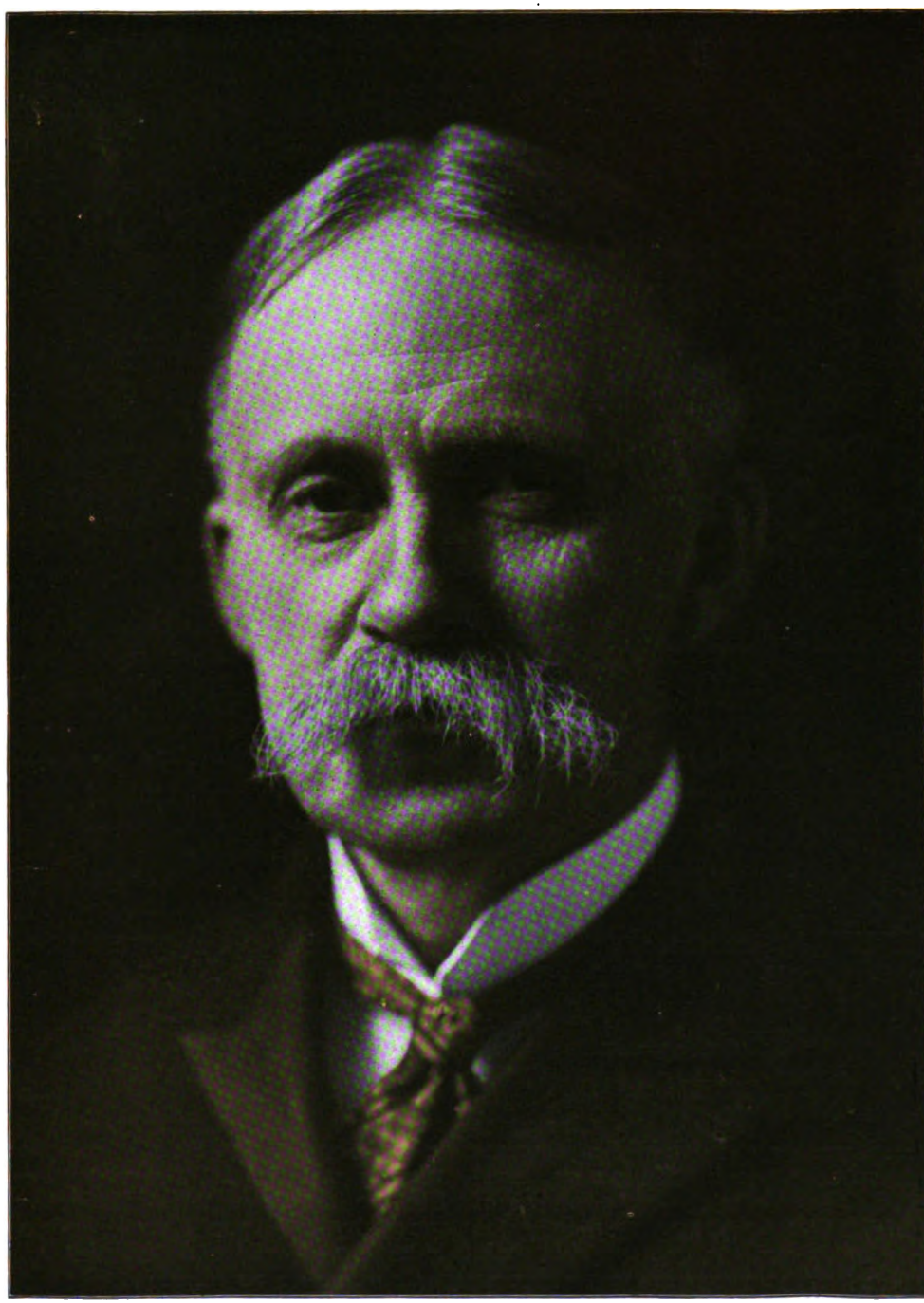

HARRY PRATT JUDSON
The new President of the University of Chicago

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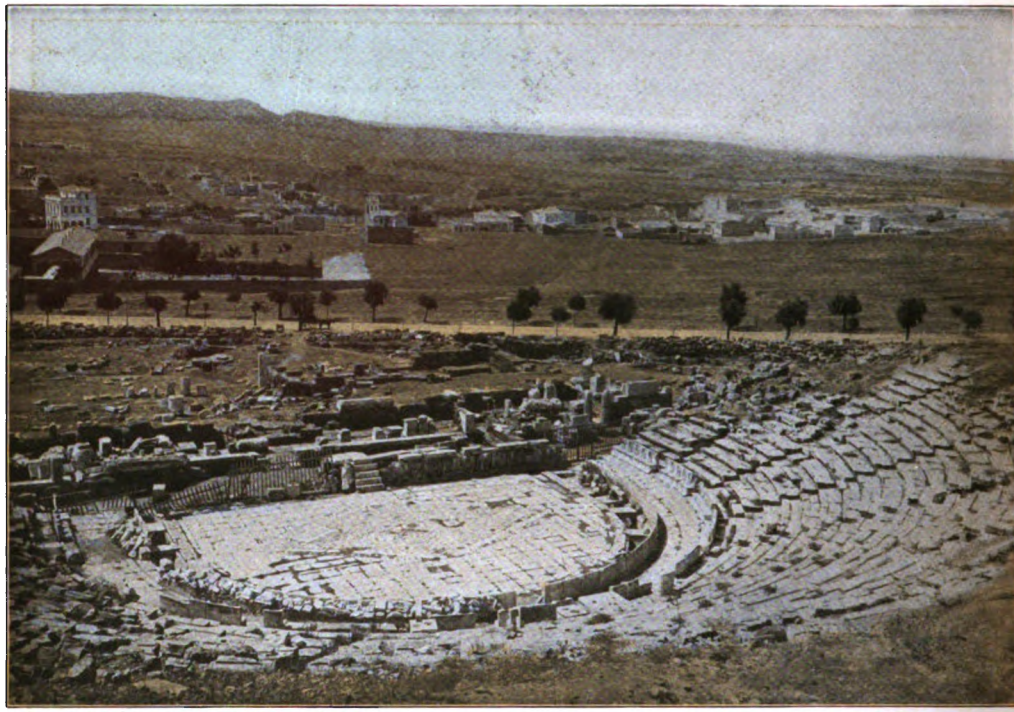

The Greek Theater of Dionysius at Athens

MODERNIZING THE GREEK THEATER

BY

FREDERIC H. GRISWOLD

WHEN the Athenian of old took his place in the theater built in the rocky side of the Acropolis and prepared to listen to the latest tragedy of Sophocles, he saw hundreds of his countrymen around him on seats arranged in a peculiarly ingenious manner. For centuries the surroundings of this Athenian have interested only the archæologist and the student of archaic customs. Other plans for theaters were devised as the years passed and civilization developed; but finally came the era of another race of independent thinkers and these men have decided that the ideas of two thousand years ago were better than those of later centuries. The older system was revived and the most novel, up-to-date theater in Germany is the result.

The Schiller theater, which stands on a quiet street in Charlottenburg, a city that adjoins Berlin, is simply the old Greek theater over again, with the modifications necessary because of differences in the climate and with a stage suited to modern usages. It was built for the Schiller Society according to plans prepared by Professor Max Littmann, of Münich, and has just been finished.

This theater represents, first of all, a realization of the living principle of democracy. The spectators are all on equal terms: there are no seats that are better than others, and boxes down the sides have been abolished, social and class distinctions thus being entirely done

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away. Another great benefit of this new type of playhouse, which represents a wide departure from familiar stage usages, is that effects sought by the dramatist are intensified. It is the aim of the builders of this model stage to establish the illusions of the theater more thoroughly than has been done heretofore and to stimulate the imagination so that the enjoyment of the spectators will be increased.

The new theater is the result of a development that has been going on for many years. The theories involved have been given a thorough test elsewhere, on a stage meant for other purposes, and have been proved to be sound. These tests began in Bayreuth where Wagner put into effect his revolutionary ideas regarding the opera. Being an original thinker, who enforced his own ideas instead of following traditions, Wagner made many wide departures from the accepted order of things and in so doing paved the way for the innovations now being tried in the drama. He was not only a reformer of the opera, he was a revolutionist who brought about changes in almost everything he touched. Prevailing stage practices were inadequate when Wagner undertook to present his music-dramas in the proper manner, so he devised a new system. The famous theater at Bayreuth is now known as an ideal place for the presentation of Wagner's works. In the future it may be equally well known as the spot where great stage reforms were worked out and proved practical.

Germans have always chafed over the fact that the prevailing type of theater is of a French-Italian type, best suited for

THE STAGE OF THE THEATER AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA
A reproduction of the old Greek theater. The photograph was taken during the performance of the "Ajax" of Sophocles

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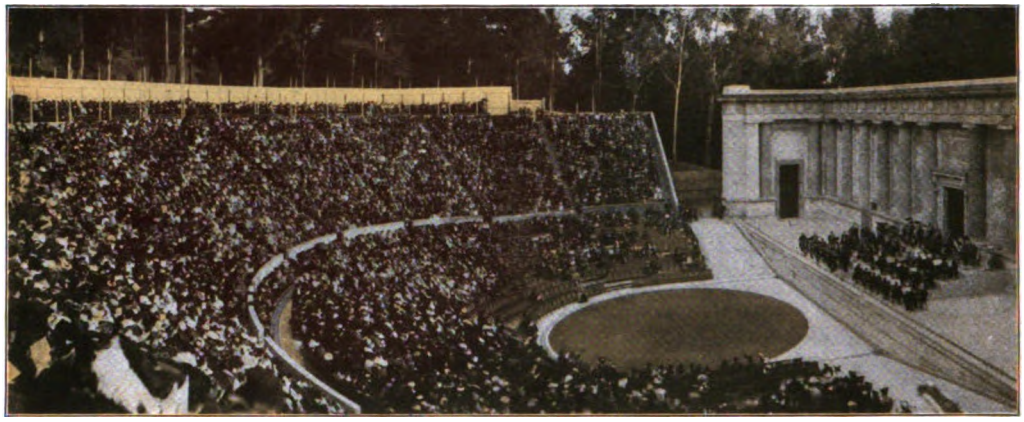
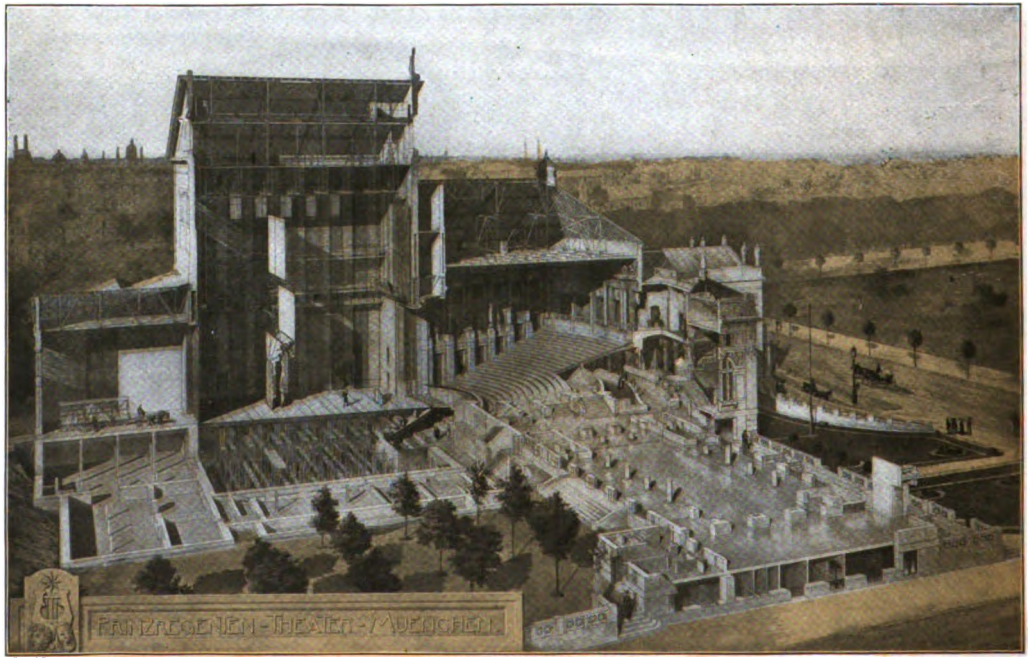


THE GREEK THEATER AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA
The spectators' seats are arranged in a curve, after the ancient style, so that all are able to see to good advantage. The acoustic properties of this theater are said to be remarkable

the presentation of light works before a bright social gathering, and they have tried for more than a century to devise some plan that would be less artificial and better adapted for characteristic German works. They wanted something more thoroughly German and more in harmony with the democratic spirit of the day. They have finally evolved an original plan which they believe will form the basis for the German theater of the future and very likely affect stage usages in other lands as well.

The form of the ancient theater has been revived from time to time, but not in the practical manner that it is being tried in Germany to-day. The revival was the result of a long crusade that began with Carl Friedrich Schinkel, a noted architect who was born in 1781.



A SECTIONAL VIEW OF THE PRINCE-REGENT THEATER AT MUNICH
The extraordinary size of the stage, its height and depth are clearly shown. The auditorium proper is comparatively small. Much space is given to the restaurant, garden and foyers

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THE PRINCE-REGENT THEATER AT MUNICH
A reproduction in granite of the ideas of Richard Wagner, designed by Heilmann and Littmann, of Munich. It is one of the finest theaters in existence, although not the most expensive

He tried to induce his countrymen to go back to the old form, but was unable to persuade them to put his bold ideas into practice. His theories were transmitted to Gottfried Semper, the friend of Richard Wagner, and the Bayreuth "Provisorium" was the result, although Semper was not its architect. It was not possible for Wagner to do more than put up at Bayreuth a structure of wood and brick, although he had hoped to erect something monumental. But the provisional theater served its purpose and demonstrated the truth of his teachings. Wagner had hoped to put up the greatest theater in the world in Münich, but his plans fell through. Finally, after the lapse of about a quarter of a century, there was an awakening in the "Athens on the Isar" and Wagner's ideas have been perpetuated in a splendid structure of granite. It was in this building — the Prince-Regent Theater — that the discovery was made that the drama also gained by the application of the same principles which had brought Wagner success in the opera.

Feeling assured that they had finally found the plan that would give them something truly national and characteristic, the careful but progressive Germans began the Schiller theater, which differs from the ordinary type of playhouse as much as the Bayreuth "Provisorium" does from the old home of opera. Equality among the spectators is gained by the revival of the arrangement of the Greek theater, with the difference that the seats are not allowed to spread out so far on either side of the stage. The floor is pitched at a considerable angle and there are no aisles. In place of the usual doors at the rear, there are rows of them down the sides and it is through these side entrances that the spectators make their way to the seats. The space devoted to exits is therefore more than doubled. The distance between the rows of seats is greater than it ordinarily is with us and the effort necessary to reach one of the big foyers at the side is less than it is when any one having an inside seat in one of our theaters tries to get to the aisle. There is no slow procession down the aisles at the close, and the hall can be cleared in a remarkably short space of time. The great Ring theater disaster in Vienna has made German officials extremely cautious, and they conducted a long inquiry before they would permit either the Prince-Regent or the Schiller theaters to be built. After exhaustive investigations they decided that the new type of auditorium was the

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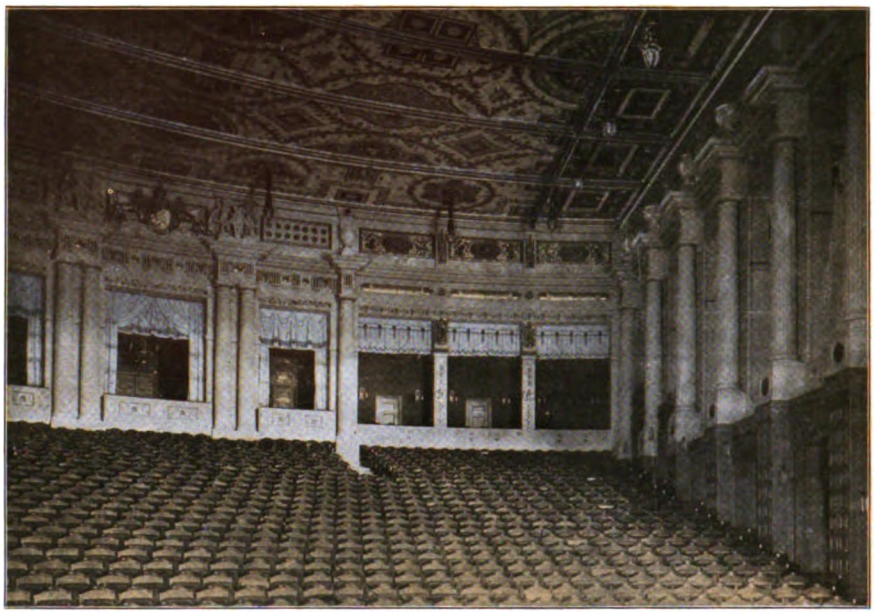
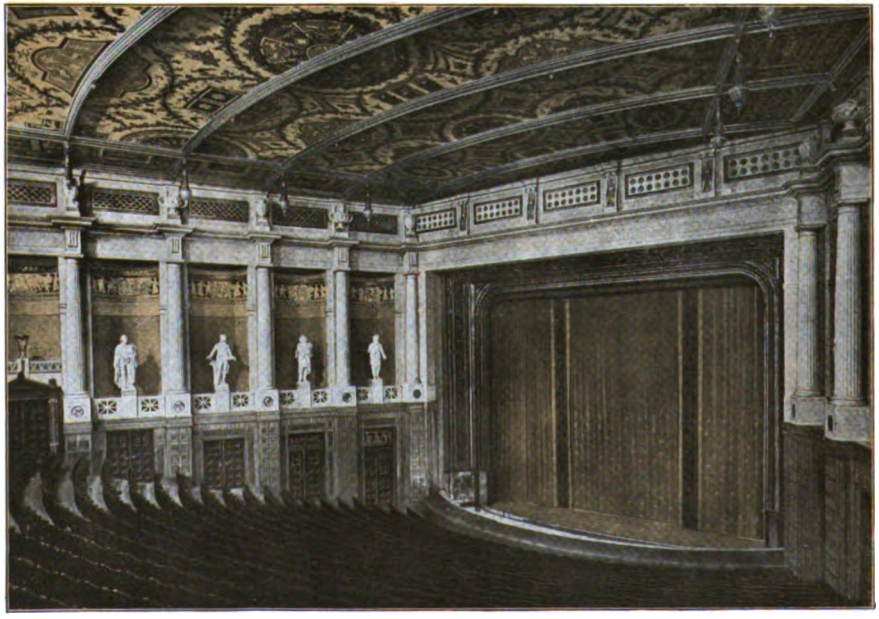


INTERIOR OF THE PRINCE-REGENT THEATER, MUNICH
Showing the side doors and the boxes at the back. There are no aisles except in the last few rows

safest of all. Such a hall can be cleared quicker than the old form and there is greater safety for all, as it is in the aisles and at the exits that the dreaded dangers lurk.

The Schiller theater, recently dedicated, consists of three connected buildings, with a garden that is thrown open when weather permits. The main structure contains the stage and the great



THE STAGE OF THE PRINCE-REGENT THEATER
The double proscenium arch and the pillars down the side are used to intensify the feeling of illusion and remove the definite line of separation between the spectators and the actors

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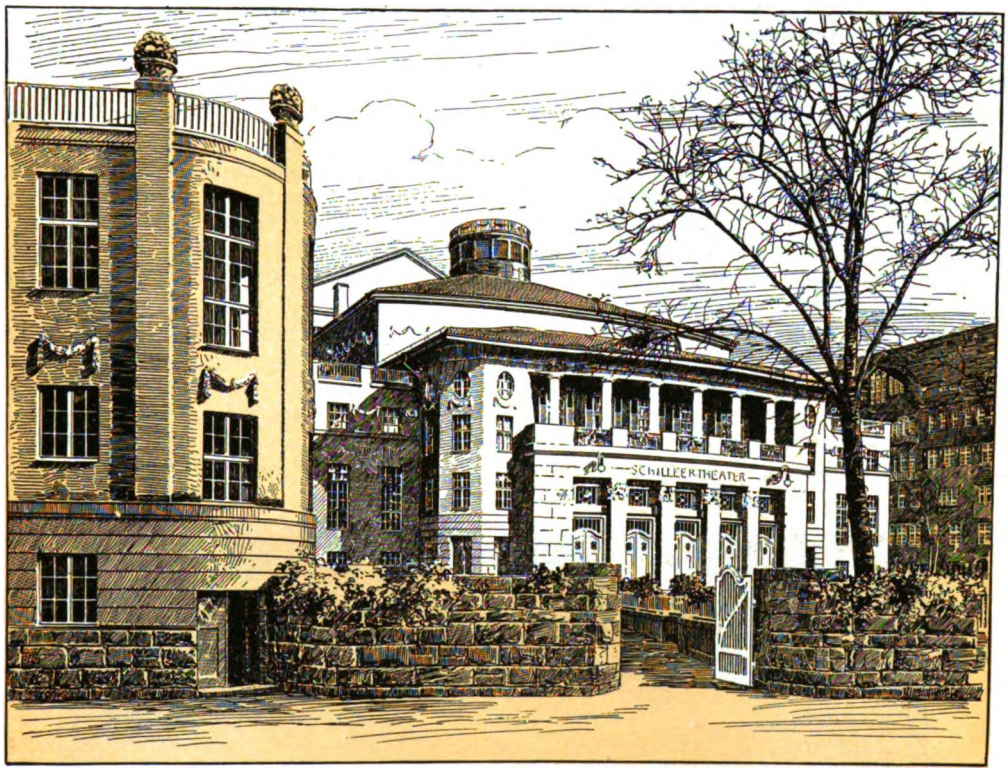
theater with seats for 1,450 persons. It is possible to cut off part of the hall so that there will be only 959 seats. The stage is enormous, as compared with the auditorium, and contains a great variety of all the latest and best machinery for scenic effects. In a second building there is a restaurant, with a festival hall above. In the third structure a small hall has been provided for popular entertainments.

the proposed solution of the problem being tried in Charlottenburg seems far more practical than either of the others. The Germans do not abolish scenery and the effects to which they object. They modify them instead and in so doing obtain remarkable results.

With us there is a positive line of demarcation which stands between the actor and the spectator, the proscenium arch, which separates the real world from



THE SCHILLER THEATER AT CHARLOTTENBURG, GERMANY
An adaptation of the Greek theater to modern necessities, designed by Heilmann and Littmann, architects of Munich

In shape the auditorium resembles a fan about half open. If the spread-out portion of the fan is raised at a considerable angle one is given a fair idea of the incline and general plan of the floor. The decorations are of the type that combines simplicity and beauty, straight lines being used as much as possible.

The Elizabethan revival and the plan of hanging draperies on the stage in lieu of scenery, both show that there is dissatisfaction witn prevailing stage practices in other lands than Germany, but

the creations of fiction. In attempting to establish the desired feeling of illusion the Germans devoted their attention first to this arch. They found that the feeling of artificiality was lessened when the proscenium arch was disguised as it is at Bayreuth. In order to accomplish this, two arches were put in, the curtain being thus removed farther from the spectator than is the usual custom. Two fire walls and two steel curtains are thus placed between the audience and the stage. In the buildings devoted to opera there is a

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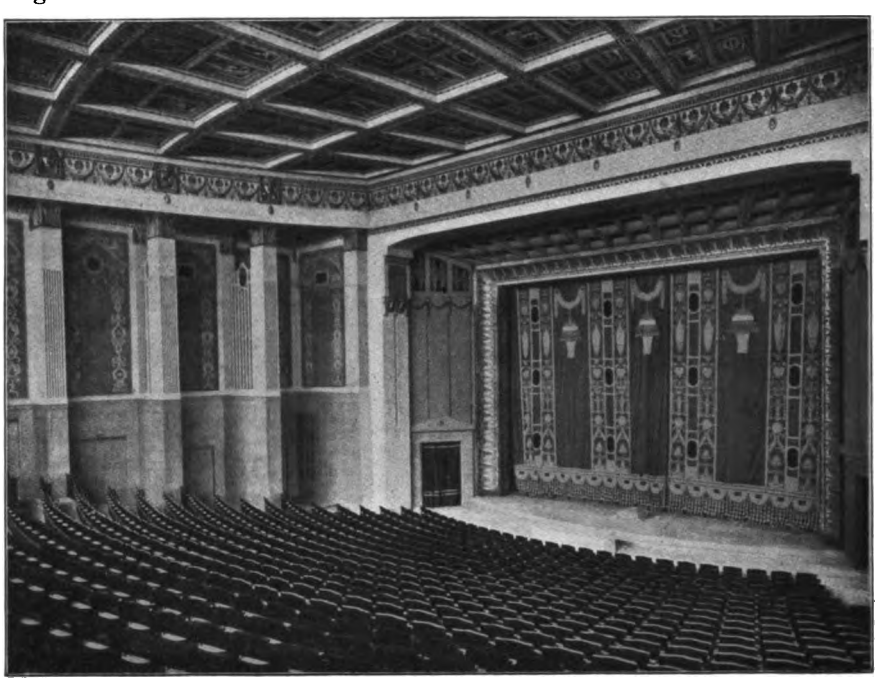
black void between these arches. This space is temporarily closed when dramas are presented, for the spoken tone lacks the carrying power of that which is sung. Then, to carry on the feeling of lack of certainty as to the exact location of the arch, pillars similar in design to the columns before the stage are placed along the sides of the hall at regular intervals so that there is, apparently, a row of proscenium arches. In the space between the double proscenium arches is what Wagner called the "Mystic Gulf" wherein the invisible orchestra is concealed. This idea, too, is adopted in the Schiller theater.

Nets hanging in the air, with leaves pasted on them and tree trunks that flutter like flags if there is a breeze from the side, may represent extremely clever work on the part of the stage-craftsman, but they will never deceive us if it is possible to make out how the material of which they are composed is put together. The Germans hold that such things fetter the imagination, instead of aiding it, and have risen in rebellion against the traditional plan of presenting stage pictures. Those regularly engaged in such work are accused of thinking more about preserving traditions established within the theater than of obtaining a truly artistic effect, hence artists and other gifted men are employed instead of the usual department experts. These experts are retained in service, but they are compelled to modify their usual plan under the supervision of others.

But, although the stage settings are the best obtainable and the mechanism is of the latest and most ingenious type, one of the most effective aids in the hands of the German innovators is a simple device — the mere handling of the lights in the proper manner. Here again tradition is defied and the democratic spirit once more disturbs the rule of society, for, instead of the brightly lighted auditorium in which costumes and jewelry can be seen to advantage, there is absolute darkness over the seats. A small lamp, covered by a shade, indicates the location of the nearest exit. With the auditorium dark comparatively little light is needed on the stage and there, at what appears to be a considerable distance, the figures move in their own surroundings. One forgets artificiality when looking at such a picture and sees the true scene in which the characters are set. Artistic unity is the first thought and the "star" system is abolished.



THE STAGE OF THE SCHILLER THEATER

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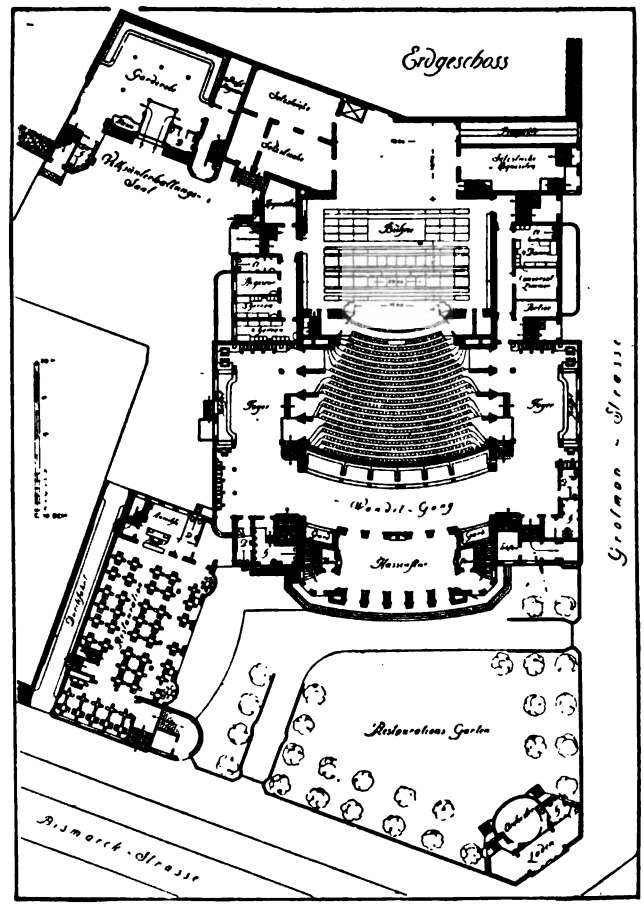
Every effort is made to rest the spectator by removing him as far as possible from every-day affairs. Performances in these new theaters begin early, sometimes at 4 o'clock in the afternoon if a big opera is to be presented, and continue until about 10 o'clock, with a long intermission for supper. On a pleasant day the patron is at liberty to arrive early and to take his ease in the attractive garden until the hour for starting the performance arrives. It is not necessary to leave a theater of this type for a meal, unless one wishes to do so, for there is the spacious restaurant where all can be accommodated. Then, while waiting for the curtain to go up once more, the visitors stroll in the garden, or sit at one side resting until notified that the performance is about to be resumed. At Bayreuth and Münich this signal is in the form of the traditional trumpet fanfare used at the primitive theatrical performances during the middle ages.



GROUND PLAN OF THE SCHILLER THEATER

A small hall for musical entertainments is at the top. In another building at the bottom are the restaurant and festival hall. Much space is devoted to a garden, in one corner of which is a stand for musicians

It may seem a simple matter to have false proscenium arches, to place the stage at a greater distance and to dim the lights, but the results are remarkable and are out of all proportion to what one who has not seen for himself would imagine. The feeling for perspective, for dimension and distance comes over the spectator, who no longer concerns himself with studying out details of the apparatus by means of which the spell is cast. In fact he can not study out such things if he tries, in the new type of theaters, for care is taken that the senses shall be deceived. On the stage as we know it, the feeling of illusion is sometimes established, but these moments are not frequent. It is usually the lavishness and the ingenuity of the settings that are admired, for all of the details are in evidence. The distinction between the two types mentioned is simply that between art and clever craftsmanship.

Although the new theater and the plan upon which it is operated are both distinctly German, the members of the Schiller Society have adopted a broad policy in regard to the plays that are to be presented. They will not confine their activities to the fields of either the idealistic or the realistic schools. To-day they may present Schiller and Calderon, to-morrow Hebbel and Ibsen; to-day Sophocles, to-morrow Shakespeare. They are as likely to present Maeterlinck as they are Bernard Shaw or D'Annunzio. The city of Charlottenburg is aiding the plan and has made considerable concessions to the society in order to help on the work of popularizing good plays. Musi-

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cal evenings are arranged occasionally in the smaller hall and there the lesser works of the great composers are presented in a popular manner. These musical events are often accompanied with lectures, for the educational feature is never forgotten. The work of the society and the campaign for raising funds and obtaining a suitable site for the theater have been going on for years.

The movement backed by the Schiller Society is a model in its way. Seats are sold at a cheap rate, but the performances are, nevertheless, kept on a high level of excellence. It is the theater itself, however, which will interest the majority in other countries, for here a new movement has been started that may bring about important changes elsewhere in stage usages. Time will, of course, be necessary before any advantages that may result from the new plan will be generally recognized and adopted, but when the Schiller theater has become well known it is not unlikely that the ideas upon which its construction is based will be widely accepted and that similar structures may be built in other lands.

NEW YORK'S NEW WATER SYSTEM

BY

ARTHUR B. REEVE

NEW YORK is planning to bring down from the Catskill Mountains enough water to cover the city a half inch deep every day. New York is dry. It needs water and it needs it badly. That is why the city has started to build a water-supply system that will drain an area in the Catskill Mountains equal to that of the whole State of Rhode Island, gathering the water into a huge artificial lake three-quarters of the size of Manhattan Island itself. Eighty-six miles this water will flow by the force of gravity alone, crossing under the Hudson by a gigantic siphon sunk deep into the bed rock, and finally it will deliver six hundred million gallons of pure mountain water to the metropolis every day.

Six hundred million gallons a day means a flow of water considerably more than half the daily flow of the Hudson River itself during the dry season. It means enough water every twenty-four hours to cover the whole of Manhattan and the Bronx a half inch deep. It means four times as much water led into the city in a year as falls on it in rain and snow. It means an engineering task as great and costlier than the Panama Canal. It means building a dam in the drained area second in size only to the world-famous Assouan dam that collects the waters of the Nile. That briefly is the story of New York's new water system.

Engineering, geology, botany, zoölogy, law, finance, brains and nerve are strangely mingled in the gigantic undertaking — but chiefly energy. It takes the utmost energy of five hundred and fifty trained engineers to plan how this vast territory is to be drained and the water carried down to the city. Lastly it takes clever legal talent to carry the work through properly, for six towns and fifteen miles of railroad are to be covered over. As for the grafting politician, he has not appeared yet.

For, whatever the theorists may say of municipal activity, the chief engineer, J. Waldo Smith, means to carry this work through for the city if science and brains can do it. He and his five hundred and fifty assistants are young men with reputations to make and sustain. Perhaps a glimpse of this great engineering family, showing as it does the spirit of the work,

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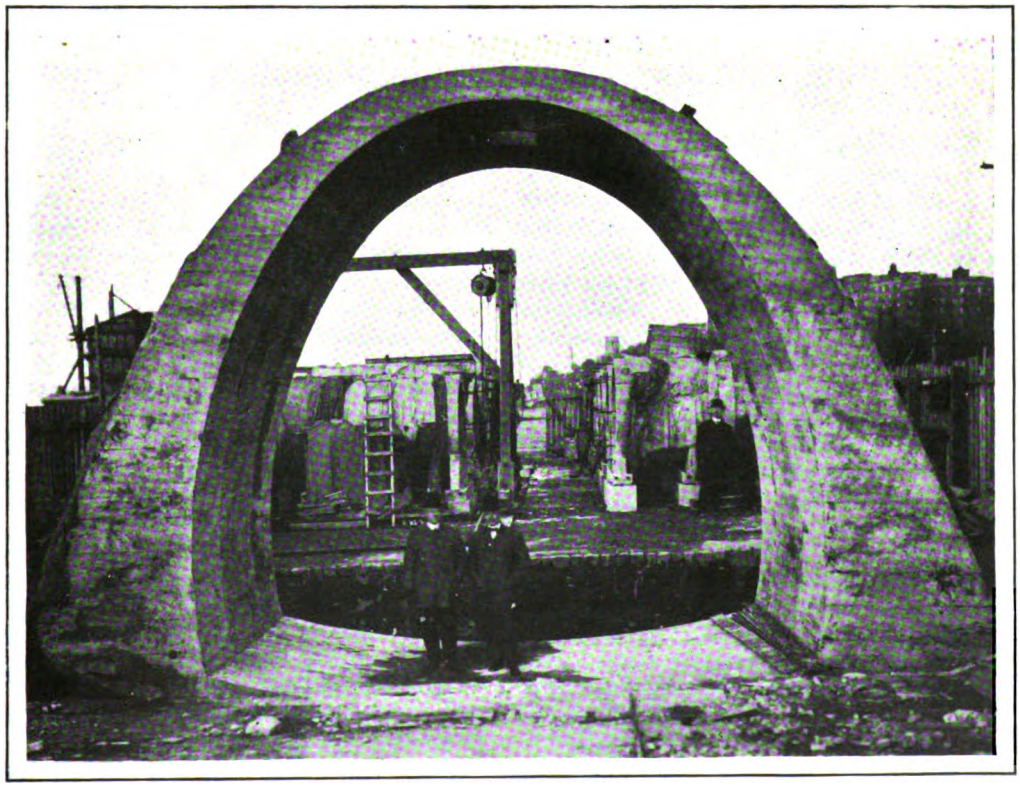
will convey an even more accurate impression than dry statistics.

Mr. Smith, in his twenty years of engineering service, has been carefully preparing himself in every branch of waterworks construction that is necessary for him to succeed in the greatest undertaking of the sort now in progress in the world. Born in Lincoln, Massachusetts, he was educated at Phillips Andover and later graduated from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. While he was still in his senior year he began his first practical work in engineering and three years later he went to Holyoke, where he gained a fine reputation in hydraulic engineering.

The next great undertaking with which he was associated was the building of plants for the East Jersey Water Company, first as assistant and later as chief engineer. For fourteen years he was constantly at work constructing reservoirs, dams, conduits, river crossings and every conceivable part of the numerous water systems controlled by the big company. One of the best known records he left behind him was for economizing in water consumption in a large town in New Jersey. He devised a card index system of consumers that is still pointed to as a model for telling where the water goes and keeping a check on its wasteful use.

One thing is most characteristic of this engineer who can quietly sit behind a stack of blue-prints and tell you that he is not engaged in anything remarkable in thinking out the future of New York's water supply — he is a worker and expects a maximum of work from every man under him. At one of the recent dinners which are frequently held to bring the members of his staff into the closest possible touch, the chief after-dinner song began: "Everybody works for Waldo."

The five hundred and fifty men on the staff include engineers, sanitary experts, surveyors, rodmen, axmen, and line men. There is one small army at work at the



A SECTION OF THE AQUEDUCT

Over eighty miles of aqueduct of this size and shape will lead the water from Ashokan down to the city of New York. Two tally-hos could pass each other through this aqueduct

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Ashokan reservoir site and another along the line of the aqueduct. At Ashokan, headquarters have been established near Brown's Station on the Ulster & Delaware Railroad, which will eventually be fifty feet below the level of the reservoir. A few engineers and their assistants have rented rooms for themselves and families at Kingston and go to and from their work every day by train. But most live in the farmhouses of the region. Far away from the "Great White Way" of New York the men have formed all sorts of social organizations, of which the "Tongore Club" is the most prominent.

Baseball is a favorite sport in the summer and spring, and the greatest rivalry exists between the teams of the "Reservoirs" and the "Aqueducts." Every means is resorted to to keep the men happy and efficient, as, for example, the monthly dinners and conferences. Taken altogether it is like a great overgrown college class doing field work, for most of the men are from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, with Cooper Union a close second, and almost every well-known technical school represented. The skylarking is only theoretical, however, and the work is a hard, steady grind, producing results that cause Mr. Smith to assert proudly that he has the finest body of men on any big construction job about New York, and that is saying a great deal, for over a billion dollars' worth of remaking is now going on at various places in New York.

Quick and accurate work is what Mr. Smith himself is noted for and what he expects of every man under him. He came to the Croton Aqueduct Commission in 1903 and after about two years' work he had proved his ability to take charge of the new water plans. That was on August 1, 1905. The month was unavoidably consumed in preparatory discussions that ended in little, so that Mr. Smith was not able to get down to work until the first of September. By October 9, less than six weeks, he had turned out a complete draft of what he proposed to do and had submitted it, with an estimate of the cost. This draft has been gone over constantly by experts in all branches since then, and a year and a half of closest examination has not resulted in any important change.

STORM KING MOUNTAIN
The water runs down a shaft in this mountain about 1,000 feet, and is then forced by its own pressure beneath the Hudson River

The result is that work is going on rapidly. One problem only remains unsolved. That is not because it is insoluble but because it is a deep problem, probably a thousand feet deep. This problem is how to get a river under a river; in other words, how to build a mammoth siphon to carry the water under the Hudson. Building the siphon is simple in

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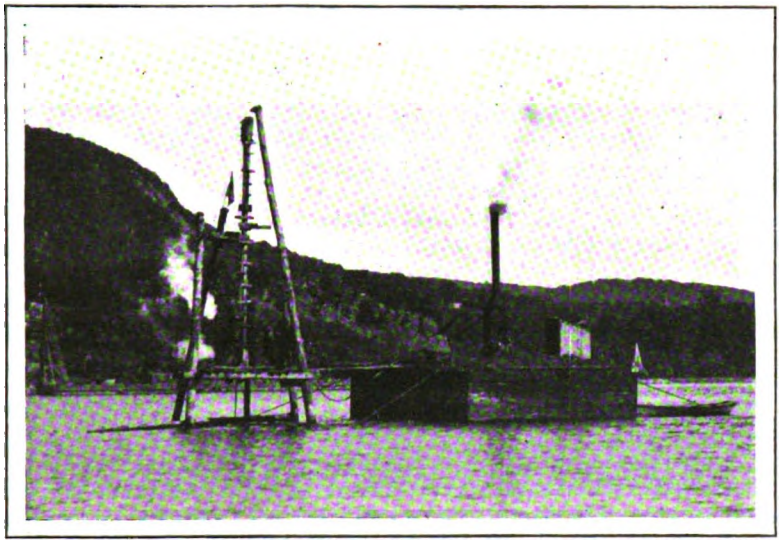
theory. If it were an ordinary tunnel like that in which the Pennsylvania Railroad intends to run its heavy steel trains into the city it would be a comparatively well-understood undertaking. But such a tunnel full of water at a continuously high pressure and itself liable to corrosion from the water constantly passing through it, does not appeal to the engineers.



A DRILLING-MACHINE AT STORM KING CROSSING
Seeking to ascertain the depth at which bed rock can be found beneath the Hudson River, on which to rest the great tunnel siphon

Forty years ago the city of New York built for itself the first of all subaqueous tunnels under its rivers. That was the old Croton water-system tunnel under the Harlem, blasted and drilled through solid bedrock. It is as good now as it was then; it will be as good practically forever. A rock siphon is what is sought under the Hudson. That sounds also comparatively simple. But it is not. Geologists are ready to assert that at the point chosen to cross the Hudson from Storm King Mountain on the west shore to Breakneck Mountain on the east there is bed rock if one goes deep enough to find it. The trouble is that no one has ever had occasion to go deep enough to locate it and it must be known to a certainty before real work can be done. The men who are going to find it are the men who have so far surmounted every obstacle in their path.

They are still measuring and expect to find it continuous across the river at perhaps a depth of six hundred feet. Thus the water from the Catskills will run into Storm King Mountain four hundred and fifty feet above the level of the Hudson. It will then shoot down a shaft six hundred feet further below that level, in all considerably more than a thousand feet, be forced by its own pressure across the river and up again to the height of four hundred feet inside Breakneck Mountain opposite. Except for the size it is all as simple in theory as an experiment with a glass tube.

The work of crossing the Hudson, gigantic as it is, is in reality only a very small part of the entire undertaking. Yet the preliminary work is all well under way and contracts for certain sections of it are ready to be advertised the moment the lawyers pronounce the word. The first section to be constructed is a section of eleven miles between Croton and Peekskill. The largest part of the work done has been in the Catskill drainage area itself, although the route of the aqueduct for two-fifths of its length has been definitely fixed and drawings for a large part of it completed.

Briefly let us follow the water in its course down to the city, where it will be delivered at an elevation of three hundred feet, insuring a pressure that will

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reach most skyscrapers. Four Catskill streams will be drained: the Schoharie, the Esopus, the Rondout, and the Catskill Creek, collecting the water from fourteen watersheds. A web of smaller streams contributes its share, and the drainage area extends north one hundred and thirty miles from New York city and west to the watershed of the Hudson.

Across this glorious country of hill and valley, forest and stream, the hundreds of engineers and rodmen are working out the plans with the energy that comes from the brisk mountain air of the region. The area covered is about 904 square miles of the eastern part of the Catskill country. The study began with a careful observation of the rainfall and the volume of the streams by a special corps of engineers. Rain gauges and weirs were set up, and at them constantly delicate measurements are being made. The meteorology and geology of the country are being studied as minutely as the most delicate recording instruments and most powerful microscopes permit.

Having gathered the water of a thousand hills, a huge storage reservoir is necessary. This is the great Ashokan Reservoir, nearly ninety miles from New York, the greatest single piece of construction of the system of which the Hudson siphon is a close second. This reservoir (the natives call it Shokan) is to be a lake in itself, twelve miles long and from one to four miles wide. The water is to be confined by two huge dams of masonry, one two hundred and twenty feet high, and by three smaller dykes of earth. The greatest care is being taken to fix the sites of these walls, for should they be laid upon a faulty stratum or porous bed the enormous pressure of the water might some day burst its barriers and cause a disaster that would pale the Johnstown flood.

That is the reason why deep shafts are being bored into the earth at Ashokan, from fifty to two hundred feet below the surface. The boring has been of interest to more than engineers. Eminent geologists have been attracted to it, for it reveals a geologic history that to them is more romantic than the engineering scheme. Yet they contribute of their knowledge to the success of the engineers. Foot by foot the diamond drills have revealed the ancient history of the Esopus Valley as they have descended through the glacial drift. Gravel and immense bowlders that had to be dynamited before the probes could sink deep enough, have been conquered in the search for the solid rock or impervious clay on which to rest the dam.

The most minute records are kept of the time and place of boring, and the soil and rock brought to the surface are laid in long narrow troughs exactly in the order in which they were laid down by nature before man pried into their secrets. Placed end to end, twelve miles of borings have thus been made. The progenitor of the Esopus, which is the river which will empty directly into the Ashokan Reservoir, before the glacial period flowed in a shallow bed into the Hudson. The glacial drift filled it with gravel and bowlders. As the ice receded the Esopus began anew patiently to carve its course, crowded this time southward against a high bank. The bed of blue stone wore away faster than the bowlders and gravel, and the stream cut a new cañon for itself.

The boring and digging of shafts is to determine whether a seven-foot concrete wall will have to extend all the way down to bed rock, or whether impervious material underlies the glacial drift and makes it unnecessary to build as deep as the rock.

This impounding reservoir will be a beautiful lake made by damming up the gorge of the Esopus, which stretches up to the eastern wall of the Catskills. Dotted with islands at low water, the nine thousand acres will be most of the time a nearly unbroken sheet of water where boating but not bathing will be allowed, with fishing in summer and ice-cutting in winter. Six towns will be buried under one hundred and twenty billion gallons of water behind the dams and dykes. The reservoir will consist roughly of two basins, the eastern about four thousand acres with forty-eight billion gallons of water in it, and the western about five thousand acres, holding seventy-two billion gallons.

For a long time the engineers debated whether they should "strip" the site of the reservoir, removing much of the soil. After considering that the real problem

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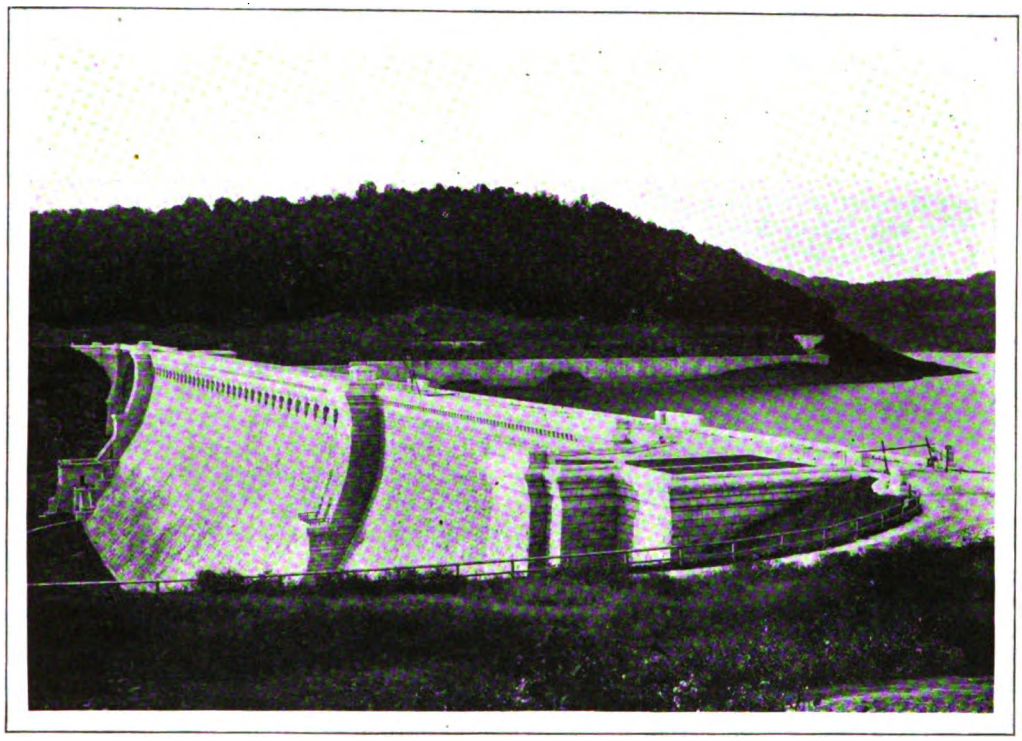

THE NEW CROTON DAM
Temporarily the 600,000,000 gallons of water from the Catskills will be received into the Croton reservoir until the huge storage reservoir at Kensico is completed

would be the effect of the water at the final reservoir at Kensico, New York, not at Ashokan, they decided that all tastes and odors would be lost practically in the transit from Ashokan to Kensico, and that to be absolutely sure it would be best to put the money, $5,000,000, in a filtration plant somewhere between Kensico and New York.

Once started on its long journey southward the water will run under hill and over dale by its own gravity through a huge concrete aqueduct seventeen feet high and seventeen and a half feet wide — large enough to drive two tally-hos through all the way down. Through the rocky hills of Ulster and Orange counties by tunnels, across the valleys on embankments and masonry bridges, it will self-reliantly pursue its journey of eighty miles southward to the thirsty city. At four other points it will dip down and siphon itself under gorges or streams before it makes the great descent under the Hudson.

The system will be entirely separate from the present Croton system. At Kensico will be a huge storage reservoir capable of holding over forty billion gallons and a huge filtration plant. Another filtration plant, in addition to that already mentioned, is to be built immediately for the Croton system at Jerome Park. Only three hundred feet of the six-hundred foot level at the start at Ashokan will be used up before the city line is reached. The pressure will therefore be great enough to force water fourteen feet higher than the roof of the Flatiron Building. Most of the wooden tanks on the roofs of tall buildings will not therefore be necessary with this pressure to force water to the top floors.

Temporarily, however, the old and the new water systems will have to work together, and the water from the Catskills will be received in the Croton Reservoir. Ultimately, when the system is completed, it will continue under the rock of Hell Gate in the East River to the Borough of Queens, through it to the Borough of Brooklyn, and finally shoot down under the waters of New York Bay to serve Staten Island. All five bor-

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oughs of the greater city will draw on the Catskills. More than that, to economize even this great water supply, which may not seem so great fifty years hence, it is proposed to start, as a separate undertaking, the building of a system of pumping stations and high-pressure pipes to force the salt water of the bay and of the East and North Rivers through the city to do the work of fire protection and of flushing the streets. Finally, a word on the finances. The estimated cost has been $162,000,000 and after a year's work it has not been changed. That figure is about twice the cost of the Croton system to date. The Croton system cost $86,000,000. It has earned a net profit of $21,000,000. The alternative to the Catskill system was the infamous Ramapo. No wonder Ramapo sounds badly in New York — the Catskill system will do for some $6,500,000 interest annually at four per cent, that for which the Ramapo water would have charged over $15,000,000. It will save considerably more than half the cost of the private bid, and besides it is calculated to pay for itself in about twenty years.

WILL THERE BE A NEW STATE—LINCOLN?

BY

W. F. MEIER

AN agitation for the formation of a new state from territory already embraced by one or more of the United States, is not of frequent occurrence. In the case of most of the states, the territory included is so unified in resources, interests and conditions that the mere suggestion of the creation of a new state would be looked upon as coming from one ordinarily termed a "crank." Since the admission of states into the Union, there is but one precedent for the creation of a new state in the manner suggested, namely, West Virginia. This one example came as a result of what is now Virginia casting its lot with the Confederacy, while what is now West Virginia preferred to remain loyal to the Union. Had it not been for that fact the probabilities are that there would never have been a division of the state, although there is somewhat of a diversity of conditions and interests between the two sections of the country now represented by these two states.

There is, however, at the present time, out in the Northwest, a movement that promises to assume respectable proportions, looking toward the remodeling of the three states of Washington, Idaho and Oregon in such a manner as to create a new and fourth state out of what is now ordinarily termed, in that section of the country, "The Inland Empire." There are at the bottom of this agitation, facts and conditions that seem to warrant such a movement, and with the aid of the geography it is not difficult to point out the most important of these.

Considering the three states, it is easy to see that in fixing their boundaries the contour of the country was not considered, neither the climatic nor the industrial conditions. In the case of the last two elements, no doubt, their bearing was not so apparent as it now is, but it seems strange that the physical and more natural lines of division were so totally ignored.

Looking at the case of Washington as it is to-day, what do we find? In the first place, the state is divided into two not quite equal parts by the Cascade Mountain range, which range intercepts the moisture from the Pacific Ocean, causing a much greater rainfall over the western portion than is found in the eastern part

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of the state. The western section is interested in two great industries: lumbering and shipping. The development and pursuit of these lines have resulted in the building of two promising cities, Seattle and Tacoma, having a population of approximately two hundred thousand and seventy-five thousand respectively. On the other hand, eastern Washington, while interested to a certain extent in lumbering, has no shipping industry, but is decidedly interested in agriculture. The development of its industrial lines, together with certain interests of northern Idaho, has built up a central distributing point, Spokane, having a population of some eighty-five thousand. The one section is interested in the improvement of harbors and shipping facilities, while the other is interested in the building and improvement of roads and securing for itself the means of transporting its products, either toward the coast to be handled by ocean commerce, or toward the East to be distributed by the various railroad systems.

Another fact impresses itself upon the investigator, and that is the location of the state capital at Olympia, in the extreme western part of the state. In order to transact any business at the capital a citizen of eastern Washington must take at least three days, and he is indeed fortunate if he is able to reach home within that time. This is a special hardship upon litigants who are compelled to pay the expense of counsel attendant upon the Supreme Court for the argument of causes, their attendance being sometimes required several times before the final disposition of a particular suit.

The problem that confronts the state legislature in trying to legislate for the two sections of the state, is well put editorially by the Tacoma *News* as follows:

> Legislatures now are called on to attempt some absurd legislation. The east side farmer must and does appear ludicrous when he discusses fisheries bills, or lumber needs, or manufacturing and shipping necessities. Conversely, the west side business man has no right to sit in judgment on the demands of the rural districts. The effect in both instances is sometimes highly amusing.
>
> The balance of power has been so admirably distributed so far, that nothing injurious has come to a state so strangely composed. Each state has had a fair proportionate representation at the national capital, each has shared with like fairness in the common benefits and the common progress. But is there any surety that this will continue? In this instance it is not wise to base an opinion of the future on the experiences of the past.

Whether it has been because of the diverse interests of the two sections of the state, or because of a failure of a due appreciation of the needs of each, for some cause or another there has appeared at times an antipathy between them. Probably the strongest example of this was exhibited during January of this year. At that time Commissioners Lane and Prouty of the Interstate Commerce Commission were taking testimony in Spokane in the suit brought by that city against the transcontinental railroads because of freight-rate discriminations in favor of the terminal cities. The determination of this suit adverse to, or in favor of, the complainant, would in no wise affect the rates to the terminal cities, unless, perchance, it might lessen them, and yet at the hearing appeared both Seattle and Tacoma by counsel, which counsel took an active part in opposing the lowering of rates to Spokane. As a result of this and similar exhibitions of antagonistic attitude on the part of the coast cities toward the cities of eastern Washington, thousands of dollars that would naturally go to coast jobbers are now going to eastern jobbers.

The State of Idaho presents a hardly less striking example than does Washington. The southern portion is largely a sage-brush country, heretofore extensively used in grazing, but being now rapidly transformed into an agricultural district by reason of irrigation projects. The northern section, on the other hand, is engaged in some lumbering, but more particularly in mining. The legislation needed for the development and exploitation of one section can not be suited for the other, and, consequently, a great deal of the legislation secured comes as a result of "trades" and compromises. The capital of the state is, by far, more difficult of access for northern Idaho than is Washington's capital for eastern Washington. To reach Boise a citizen of the extreme northern part must travel over twelve hundred miles, and through two other states, Washington and Oregon. He, too, experiences a great hardship in the matter of presenting matters to the Supreme Court, in spite of the

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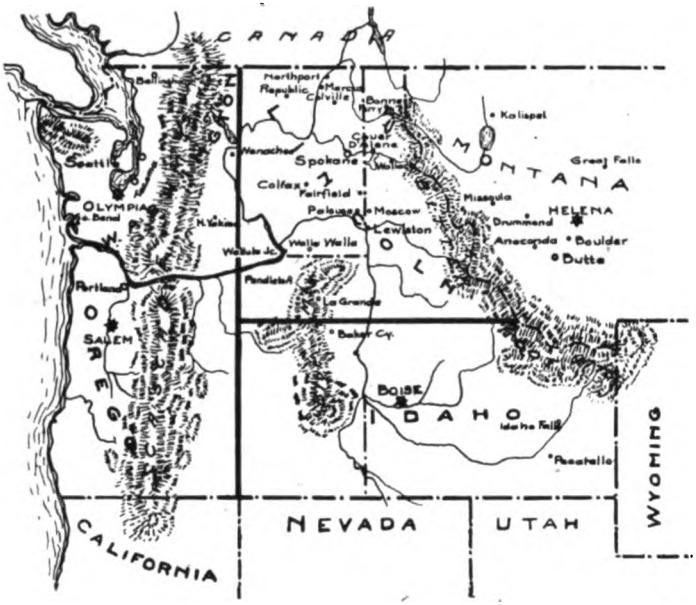

MAP SHOWING THE BOUNDARY LINES OF THE NEW STATE

fact that sessions of the court are held at Lewiston, as well as at Boise.

It is interesting to note here that the question of annexing the five northern counties of Idaho to Washington was made an issue in the congressional campaign of 1888, according to a member of the territorial legislature of Idaho during that year. He is quoted as saying:

> If Grover Cleveland had withheld his veto from the act passed by Congress in 1888, which provided for the annexation of the five counties of northern Idaho to the State of Washington, the foundation for a new state would have been laid then. In the campaign of 1888, the people of these counties made it an issue with the Congressional candidates. When the votes were counted the results showed that the people who favored the move were considerably in the majority. The people were jubilant over the results, never dreaming that their wishes would be overruled by the presidential veto. It is said that ex-Governor Stephenson, who at that time was territorial governor under President Cleveland, used his influence against the bill and was in a great measure responsible for the veto.

In regard to Oregon, conditions in the western part of the state resemble, to a very large extent, the conditions of western Washington, while the eastern, and especially the northeastern, part is similar in soil and products to southeastern Washington and southern Idaho. The feeling of the people of the eastern portion as to the treatment accorded them by the dominant section was expressed by one of the former as follows: "What the west doesn't want, she dumps off onto us." There does not appear, however, such an extreme example of diversity and antagonism in the case of Oregon as in the other two cases.

The discussion of the questions involved in carrying out the idea of creating a new state seems to have been taken up simultaneously throughout the territory that would be embraced by its bounds, and then spread to other portions of the states affected. The Seattle *Post-Intelligencer* discusses at some length the matter, maintaining that there are no real differences between the east and the west, and dismisses the subject with the following:

> Should the time ever come when the proposed inhabitants of the projected State of Lincoln rise up on their hind legs and declare that they must go, the answer probably will be made to them from this side of the mountains in a soft, gentle voice, as Horace Greeley once said to the South, "Erring sisters, go in peace."

While the Seattle *Times* says:

> We do not believe that western Washington would seriously object to the division if the eastern Washington people are anxious to obtain such a condition.

That there would be considerable opposition to the creation of the new state suggested can not be questioned. Many people would be opposed to it merely because they would not care to see their state reduced in size; others would oppose it on "general principles," without having, or giving, any special reasons. In Washington, where the balance of power is not yet so unevenly tipped, it is not altogether improbable that the requisite consent of the legislature could be obtained. The powerful interests of northern Idaho, together with the fact that that state would receive a portion of Oregon, might be sufficient to secure the consent of her legislature. It is hard to see, however, just on what grounds Ore-

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gon could be induced to give her consent to a proposition that would deprive her of a considerable area of her territory without obtaining anything in return.

And, if the consent of the three legislatures be obtained, what attitude would Congress take? It is well known that many of the states, and especially the eastern states, are jealous enough of their power, and, consequently, would oppose any movement that would give the West a greater representation, which, of course, would be the result of the admission of a new state. The strongest opposition would, no doubt, come from the Senate.

In the discussion that has been carried on, some legal and constitutional questions involved in the procedure necessary, as well as those that might arise upon a failure of Congress to admit the new state, have seemingly been overlooked. Under the clause of the Federal Constitution providing for the creation and admission of new states, Congress does not have the power of *creating* a new state; its power consists only in permitting the state to come into the Union after it is organized as such.*

Is it not possible then for this condition to arise: that the consent of the three legislatures might be obtained and the three parcels of the former states organized as a territory, which, according to some authorities, would seem to be a prerequisite to its admission, and then Congress fail to permit its organization as a state? What would then be the exact status of the territory so embraced — would it revert, *ipso facto,* to the several states that permitted its organization, or, would it become a territory of the United States? If the former, would not the controlling sections of those states exercise their dominant power to the greater injury of that territory? If the latter, would not the existence of the Inland Empire as a territory be less tolerable than its present existence?

But grant that the new state would be admitted, what would be its probable boundaries? Two suggestions as to these have been made, both suggestions coinciding in that the northern boundary would be British Columbia, and the eastern, the Bitter Root Mountains. As to the other two sides, one plan would project northward the eastern boundary of California, making that line the eastern boundary of Oregon and Washington and the western boundary of Idaho and the new state. This plan also provides for the projection of the northern boundary of Wyoming from a point where it would cross the Bitter Root Mountains, if the line were extended, to the line projected northward from the eastern boundary of California. The other plan proposes the Cascade Mountains as the western boundary of the new state, and the Columbia River, the Blue Mountains, thence a line drawn eastward until it strikes the Bitter Root Mountains, as the southern boundary. The advantage claimed for the latter is that it would leave the present county line divisions in Washington, and likewise in Oregon and Idaho, to a large extent, besides following the natural division lines.

Naturally enough, there has been some speculation as to what such a new state should be called. So far there seem to have been three possible names suggested: Lincoln, Jefferson, and Whitman, with a preponderance in favor of the first. There has, likewise, been some speculation as to the probable capital, but practically every one interested agrees that the name, as well as the selection of the capital, are matters of minor importance at this stage of the game. All energies are bent toward the formation of the new state first, with the idea that "all these things shall be added."

* "New states may be admitted by Congress into this Union; but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state; nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislatures of the states concerned as well as of Congress." Art. IV, Sec. 3, Federal Constitution.

"Congress can admit new states into the Union, but can not form states. Congress has no creative power in that respect, and can not admit into this Union any territory, district or other political unity less than a state. *And such a state must exist, as a separate independent body politic, before it can be admitted under this clause of the Constitution and there is no other clause.* The new state which Congress may admit, by virtue of this clause, does not owe its existence to the fact of admission, and does not begin to exist coeval with that fact; for, if that be so, then Congress makes the state; for no other power but Congress can admit a state into the Union." (Italics are mine.) Nine Federal Statutes Annotated, 193.

It is also interesting to read in connection with this subject the history of the cession of territory by some of the Original Thirteen States to Congress, as well as the following citations: 10 Op. Atty.-Gen., 427; 19 Op. Atty.-Gen., 335; Permoli vs. Municipality No. 1, 3 How. (U. S.) 609; Dred Scott vs. Sanford, 19 How. (U. S.) 393; Roach vs. Van Riswick, MacArthur & M. (D. C.), 181; U. S. vs. Nelson, 29 Fed. Rep. 202, affirmed 30 Fed. Rep. 112; Virginia vs. West Virginia, 11 Wall. (U. S.), 39; Kanawha Coal Co. vs. Kanawha & O. Coal Co., 7 Blatchf. 391, Fed. Cas. 7606.

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TENTING FOR HEALTH IN THE DESERT

A HEALTH-SEEKER'S ADVICE TO HEALTH-SEEKERS

BY

EDWARD E. ELLIOTT

MYSTICISM, romance, aridity; love, sunshine and bravado—to these add the spice of danger, a trifle of starvation, perhaps, and you have the compound which, in the public mind, is known as the American Desert. How would it seem to you if to these were added renewed health, restored vigor and eventual happiness?

If you have these good things in abundance this region may well remain to you an attractive abstraction, but to those who are not so fortunate, its great health values as well as its limitations should be more intimately known. To those who have found their grip on life has become less firm it should be made to tell its whole story.

The Desert of the Southwest has for several years been a source of inspiration to many writers, and an immense amount has been written with this region as a setting. The weekly or monthly of the popular sort has been hardly complete without its sketch or story of some phase of far-western life. This work has ranged from poetic effusions picturing the so-called mysticism, witchery and elusiveness of this arid region, to the caperings and love-makings of the much-abused "cow-puncher." And while occasionally there has been a picture true to life and nature, replete with local color in detail, much of this writing has borne the stamp of the eastern literary workshop with here and there a word or phrase shot in to give the proper western flavor. It has proved an attractive field for worked-out imaginations and has been the source, indirectly, of much amusement to those who know their Desert by personal experience.

And this much-abused section has not rebelled, for it is so many sided, so constantly changing that it doesn't matter—no one cares. The would-be poetical, many-adjectived effusions are quite complimentary on the one hand, and on the other, the poor miner and "cow-puncher" do not see them.

If he does encounter a "western" story the desert-dweller finds himself portrayed as a handsome, dashing, devil-may-care fellow, who is at heart all loyalty and honor, and consequently is much too flattered and surprised even to smile. If this literature produces any emotion in him it is one of disgust that none of this beautiful romance has ever trickled down into his poor, flat, uncolored existence. The real unchanging beauties of the desert country are seldom appreciated by the overworked inhabitants. They have no mind for the delicately tinted landscape, the rugged buttes, the stately mountains or the severe grotesque shapes of the cacti—life is too serious for them. When the setting sun floods the heavens with a glory no painter dare attempt, they are probably too far from water, food and bed to give a thought to things so impractical.

Even the educated mind and the trained eye are often appalled by the lowness of tone, the "flatness" of everything as one first observes it, so strangely in contrast is the desert to the established ideas of beauty.

A Great Health-giver

There is one striking attribute of this section of the country about which very little has been written, perhaps because it has no romance and no enthralling story. This is its value as a health-giver. To many people living in less-favored climates, in crowded cities, in offices, shops

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and factories, this phase should have a deep personal interest.

There is no section of this continent where nature gives so much to the conscientious health-seeker in so comparatively short a time, where the restorative value of the air acts so quickly. No one who needs its benefits and has the necessary means should hesitate because of the remoteness, or from preconceived ideas as to the roughness of the life. "Roughing it" is unnecessary and undesirable for city-bred men and women. It is there, however, if one wants it, to any degree which their strength will permit.

First Impressions

The fly-by-night tourist who "does the West" is usually appalled by the first sight of the Desert. It seems a weary waste of semi-colored sand, rock and sagebrush with only the eternal blue sky to relieve it. It is so far removed from the hand-made smugness of his accustomed eastern view that he can not quickly adjust his mind to it and therefore shuts his eyes.

It is the eastern man who is *consigned* to this climate willingly or unwillingly—this climate which God must really have intended to give to the whole world—who learns in time to love the Desert, to love it for its own peculiar beauty as well as for its health-giving value. Coming as he usually does, under compulsion, from business, home and friends, and facing the lack of many things to which he has been accustomed, his heart sinks into the bluest of blues. This is largely due to his total ignorance of this side of nature.

The mind is wonderfully quick in its capacity for readjustment, however, and if he has a fair amount of common sense and a grain of philosophy in his make-up he will soon begin to comprehend the contrasts in the surrounding nature and become absorbed in its study. To him, if he is clear-minded, it will never again be "the God-forsaken country."

There are, of course, vast stretches of unbroken, sandy wastes (the railroads usually travérse these) which few can admire, but there are far greater distances over every mile of which the lover of nature will find hitherto unknown beauties to charm him at every turn. If he has breadth of mental make-up he will learn to know that there is as much beauty in the severe, stately lines of the giant

THE GRAND CANYON ROAD IN ARIZONA
The San Francisco peaks appear in the distance

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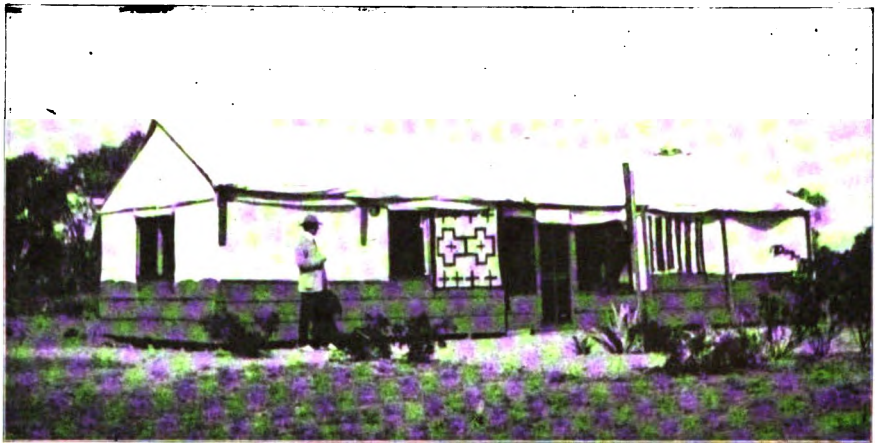
cactus as in the curving lines of the orchid, as great beauty in the warm-hued, bowlder-built buttes as in the grassy slopes of his accustomed hillsides, as much to please him in the sandy, flower-starred floor of the Desert as in the prim velvet lawns of the worked-over East. If he becomes a city or town dweller much of this will be lost to him, but for the health-seeker and the nature-lover the Desert is the place to live and the tent house the place to sleep.



A THREE-ROOM TENT HOUSE IN ARIZONA
Its attractiveness must depend on the taste of the occupant in arranging its fittings

Flora

The flora of the Desert is of great variety and is just beginning to be scientifically studied. Of cacti alone there are several hundred varieties, more probably than in any other section of the continent, from the "Little old man of the Desert" to the giant sahuaro which grows to great heights and into fantastic shapes. Some species have blooms of brilliant hue strangely in contrast to the surroundings.

Nor is this section a profitless waste, for when water can be obtained, it produces with wonderful prodigality. On the Desert proper there are many trees growing along the arroyos: the mesquite, the ironwood and the palo-verdé, while along the irrigation ditches or near water holes cottonwood trees produce shady places.

The Desert roads are usually smooth and on occasion each man makes his own. The horseback rider in studying the buttes or valleys usually follows blind trails made by previous pleasure-seekers.

How to Live and Where

Too many people, more or less ailing in health, go to the far Southwest without proper instructions as to location, altitude, diet or hygiene. This may be all worked out by the individual but usually at a fearful loss of time, strength and money. Improper location as regards humidity, altitude or temperature, the absence of intelligent instructions regarding proper food or personal habits, often overcome the benefits to which others more fortunately placed so easily respond.

Town-living is both undesirable and unnecessary—undesirable on account of faulty sanitation and the necessary irrigation, and unnecessary for the reason that adequate accommodations can be obtained on or near the Desert where the air is purer.

Then, too, it is invariably the town-dweller who complains that time hangs heavily on his hands. These western towns present as many or more forms of temptation as do the eastern cities and any one with money and time is always sure of a warm welcome. Gambling games of every variety are licensed in most of them and thousands of lonely "boys" make easy, good-natured victims for the ever-cordial, seemingly generous keepers. Much of this temptation is avoided by living miles away on the Desert where there are far more profitable ways of filling idle hours.

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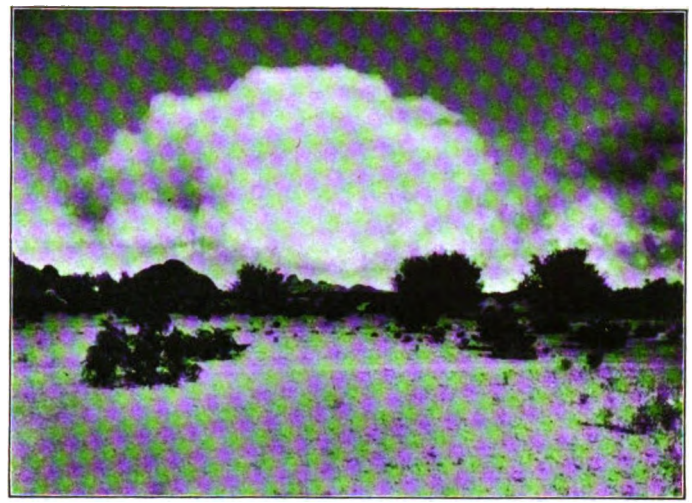

A CLOUD EFFECT IN AN ARIZONA DESERT

Tent Life

If a man or woman has a trifle of independent initiative, if, for instance, they have had the courage at some time to seek out the home of the brook trout with the trials that often implies, they need have no fear of tent life.

One must, of course, remember that in leaving town environments the luxuries are left behind. The tent house will not have decorated walls, the furnace will be a small, sheet-iron stove, the electric light will be exchanged for an oil lamp and the dainty meals will be replaced by plainer fare. But if these things and friends are more than the sweetest, most health-giving air on earth they should remain at home and die among their gods. In tent life, aided by horse or pony, a dog, books and perhaps a gun, it is surprising how quickly and pleasantly the days will pass.

Tents vary in size, usually 12 by 14 feet, but if one is fortunate enough to have a companion, three-room tents from thirty to forty feet long by about fourteen feet wide can be found. In this there will be only the bare necessities as to furnishings, and the appearance of the place will depend on taste and thoughtfulness in arranging fittings of one's own. A tent can be plain and barren or cozy and tasteful according to one's desires.

Tent life must of necessity include some exposure due to changes of temperature and occasional rains. For this reason persons in a weak condition should build up their strength before attempting it. The temperature in southern Arizona and New Mexico usually varies from thirty to forty degrees in the twenty-four hours. During January and February the thermometer may show as low as twenty-eight to thirty-two degrees, but this is infrequent. The days are, almost without exception, gratefully warm, mild and dry in winter.

To insure comfort during this season one should take with him fine, heavy wool blankets for the bed, and have heavy underwear and a light-weight overcoat handy. Equipped in this way one can spend many pleasant months in a tent, and with care and good behavior can feel every day that one has gained in health and broadened in mental sympathy and the appreciation of nature.

The newcomer will soon find himself looking appreciatively at the big, rugged "painted" buttes and mountains, the picturesque growths of cacti and the ever-changing charm of scenery as he moves about the Desert. There are many highly cultivated, widely traveled city men in this country who would not exchange a week on the Desert for a month near Broadway. To them the many-tinted lights at sunrise, the golden glory of the sunset, the ever-present blues of the shaded distances, the intense brilliance and stillness of the starlit nights count for more than the day and night in a crowded city.

Even if he is foolish enough to carry worry with him a man will find it insensibly melting away.

Weather Values

Practical experience has proved beyond a doubt that dry, warm air is essential to the recovery of several of the organs of the body when they have become impaired. This is specially so in the case of throat and pulmonary disorders. With rare exceptions it is impossible for weak or infected throats and lungs to do well in

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moist climates at any temperature. It is easy for one accustomed to studying disorders of this nature to notice the marked improvement or retrogression of the affected part when the humidity in the air is low or high. Every one living in locations where the atmosphere is affected by the proximity of large bodies of water must be aware of the injurious effects of moisture-laden air.

Humidity of the sort felt in most sections of the country is totally unknown here. Sunstrokes do not occur even in the hottest weather and heat prostrations are rare. There are vast stretches of desert in the Southwest on which there is not enough water under ordinary conditions to fill a hat. On this account the heat during most of the year is not disagreeable, but on the contrary is decidedly healthful and pleasant up to ninety degrees. In the lower altitudes during the months of June, July, August and September the heat will often become intense during the daytime, frequently one hundred and ten degrees or more, and then this region is not a fit place for a white man with nerves.

During the fall, winter and spring months the humidity will register in the daytime from ten to twenty-five per cent. When rain falls, at rare intervals, the dry sand drinks in the water and the hot sun causes instant evaporation, leaving the air dry in a short time.

On the Desert adjacent to towns, and far enough removed to overcome any effect from irrigation, dews at night are very rare, thus the humidity is low during the entire twenty-four hours. On this account, also, the few cold days during the winter, seldom cold enough to produce frost, do not chill one as they do in other climates.

It is impossible to describe the tonic quality of this atmosphere. It is a pleasure to breathe and with every breath there is healing to the weak or diseased membranes, and peace for the tired and throbbing nerves. If one is removed from the center of town the air is sweet, pure and in every way undefiled. Doors and windows should be thrown wide open. Care should always be used, either in tents or in houses, to disinfect everything that can produce odors or in any way vitiate the air.

Altitudes

Within the territories of Arizona and New Mexico there is a wide range of altitude. The Desert proper is but little above sea level, being about at sea level at Yuma, eleven hundred feet at Phoenix, twenty-five hundred feet at Tucson, and thirty-five hundred feet at Roswell, New Mexico. On this account, as well as on account of the latitude, the winters are warm and the summers extremely hot.

But a short distance further north in the mountains the altitude varies from forty-five hundred to seventy-five hundred feet. For this reason the winters are usually very cold, with much snow and wind, while the summer months are delightfully cool and comparatively dry. The desirability of living in this varying altitude must be determined by the individual. For some who are naturally strong and in good physical condition the increased heart and lung action is beneficial, while for others less favored it is decidedly undesirable, and for such the winter months in these high altitudes should be absolutely avoided.

Cost of Living

This section of the Southwest produces little to supply its own wants with the exception of a few food staples. Therefore the cost of living is higher than it is in the East. Manufactured articles of merchandise are all brought from long distances at considerable cost. But comfortable accommodations and wholesome food can be found in plenty at from ten to twenty-five dollars per week. Housekeeping is more expensive and good, well-trained servants are exceedingly scarce.

No one should go (or be sent) to this region unless they are amply provided with means for their wants, according to their tastes or previous habits of living. Remunerative employment can not be obtained and hundreds of men are always waiting for employment at any occupation within their strength which will afford them the bare necessities of life.

One of the unpleasant features to be met with frequently in this part of the country is the large number of people without the necessary means for proper existence. Hope is a fine thing, but no one should hope to live in the Southwest with-

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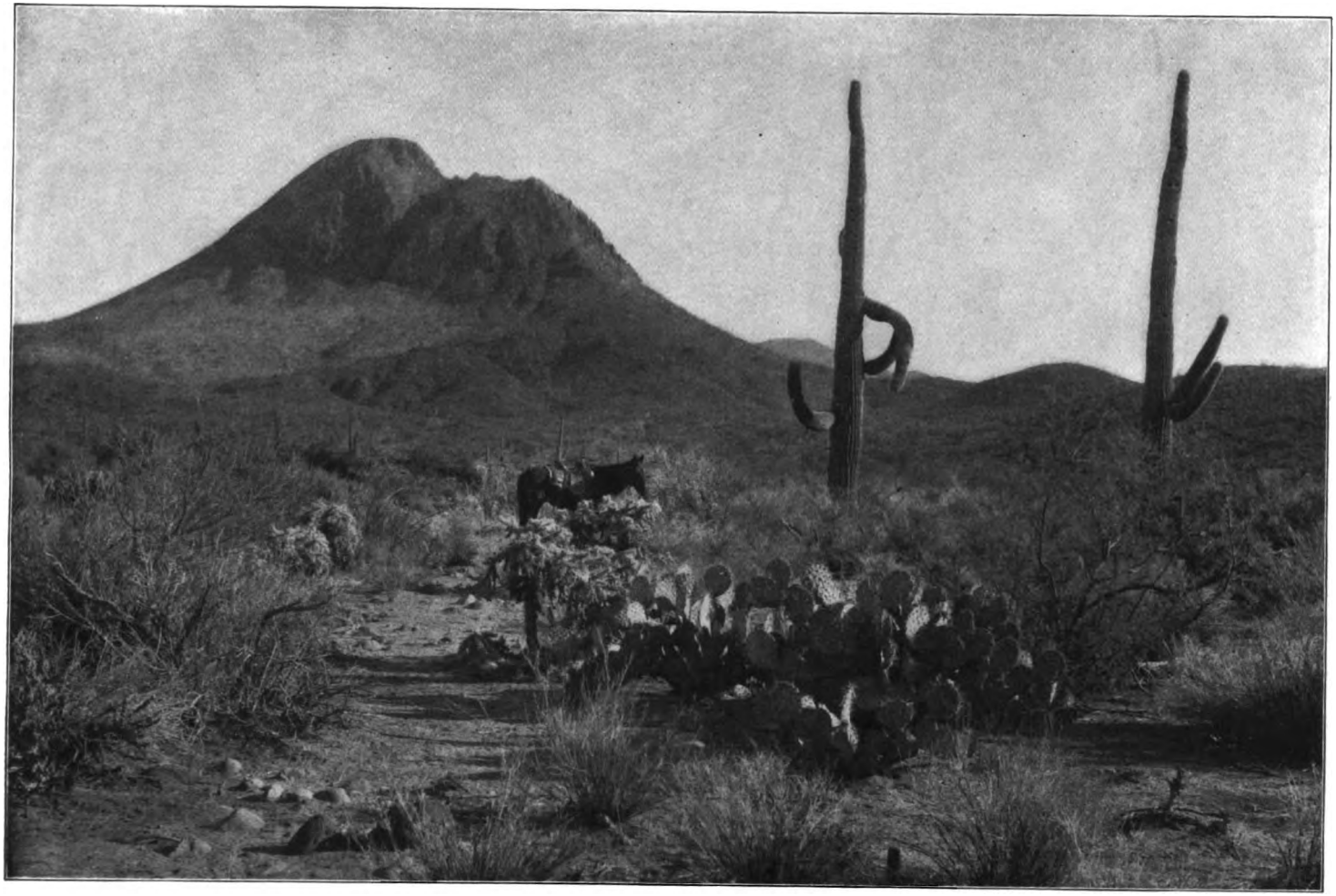

ANVIL MOUNTAIN, ARIZONA, WITH TYPICAL DESERT SCENERY
Some species of Cacti grow in fantastic shapes to a height of thirty feet

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A SCENE IN ARIZONA

Blocks of petrified wood lie in the foreground. The mound of sand is bluish-green in color at the top and at the base snow-white

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A CAMPING PARTY NEAR MAGDELENA, NEW MEXICO

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ONE OF THE PICTURESQUE SIGHTS OF THE DESERT

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out means previously provided, with the possible exception of a few strong, skilled mechanics. For men of means there is always room for investments in mines and agricultural lands.

Rest, Peace and Health

If your friends, and perhaps your physician, tell you that you are not looking well, that you have an incipient trouble which may lead to some dread disease, if you are tired clear through and your nights have become wakeful hours filled with terrifying forebodings, arrange your affairs for an indefinite absence, file your business troubles away, say a cheerful good-bye to your friends and go where you can easily find rest, peace and the greatest thing in the world, sound health.

Do not fear that the life will be too rough for you and that you will find no congenial companionship. Your life will be what you make it there as elsewhere, and you will find people equally desirable as yourself. Do not conjure up ideas about the bleakness and forbiddingness of the country. If you are open-minded and particularly if you are a lover of nature in all its never-ending moods, you will find a country surprisingly different from the one you leave, but one that you will in time learn to love not only for its own singular beauties but also from gratitude.

If you wait until your health and strength are too far gone, you will be a miserable, lonesome object, but if you go while you have a good foundation of strength to build on, you will be glad alone through watching your rebuilding strength, your quick return to unblemished health.

Be patient, study nature in the open, and she will reward you according to your deserts.

AMERICAN COFFEE CULTURE IN MEXICO

BY

JAMES D. COOK

Photographs copyrighted, 1906, by the author

MEXICO'S coffee-producing districts, so far as developed, are located about as follows: On the west coast in the States of Jalisco, Colima and Michoacan, in the northeastern part: in the States of Nuevo Leon and Tamaulipas, in the eastern and southeastern section: the States of Vera Cruz, Tabasco, Chiapas and that part of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec in Oaxaca, and the southern part of the States of Puebla and Oaxaca. In the central-northern part of the latter state is a comparatively small area of land said by experienced coffee-growers to excel in natural advantages all coffee districts in Mexico, and even marked on some maps as better than any known coffee-producing lands on the American continent.

In the heart of this particular district, natural shade, plenty of mountain streams giving abundant clear water for a machinery house and all necessary uses, sufficient rains, southern exposure, and a high mountain range, north and west, to protect a plantation from storms and frosts, furnish an ideal basis for successful culture. Given these conditions, the rest should be easy to successful endeavor, but is it?

Assuming favorable natural conditions, management is the prime requisite for success. Labor in Mexico is the manager's nightmare. On one plantation the nightmare ceased to torture when the then inexperienced manager was directed to, and did, remove the cause by excluding all liquor from his property and by inaugurating a free-school system, selling merchandise at cost of service, caring for the physical condition of employees, building comfortable houses, making

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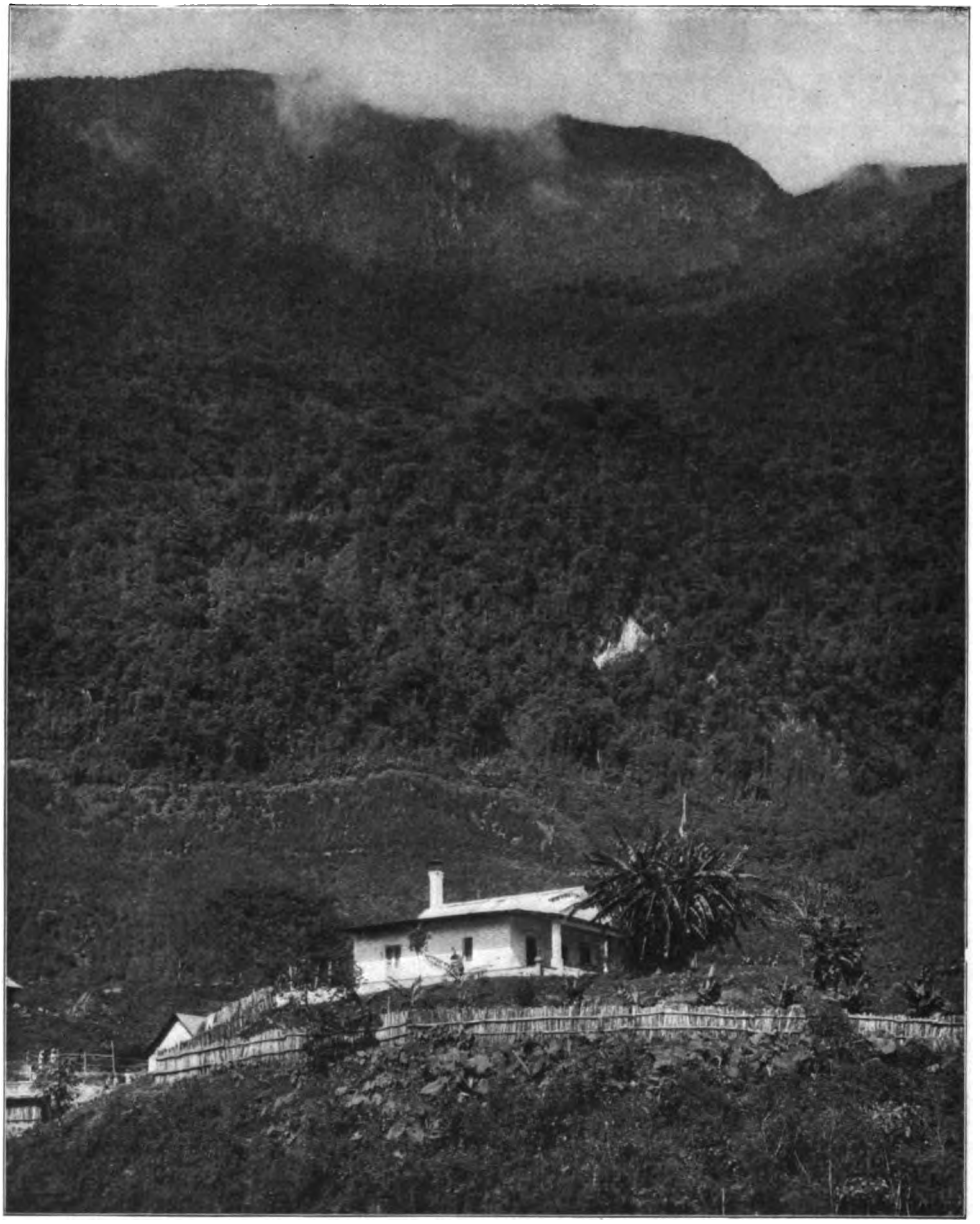

AN AMERICAN COFFEE PLANTER'S HOME IN MEXICO
The coffee may be seen growing several hundred feet up the mountain just beyond the house. The top of the mountain is obscured by the clouds which fall below it

weekly cash payment of wages and furnishing wholesome and attractive amusements free. Soon after this program succeeded the grosser one usually prevailing on Mexican plantations, plenty of laborers came, and continued to come, at the manager's call, and he alone in all coffee districts of Mexico, so far as can be learned, enjoys freedom from labor scarcity. He can plan and execute his work with the precision of a military commander, because his laborers are "clothed and in their right minds." Under such conditions culture is carried on about as follows:

Land is cleared, nursery beds made, coffee planted in proportion to the number of plants desired, the coffee seeds or

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beans being used in *pergamino* (or inside hull), and by the time the hull decays the beans sprout and come to the surface. Then appear two little leaves, and later tiny branches form, after which the seedlings are transferred to nurseries and planted about nine inches apart, the beds being covered by palm leaves or other foliage. The plants remain in the nurseries until they have two crosses, or branches. At from fifteen to eighteen months they are taken from the nurseries and transplanted into the orchard in holes deep enough for their long tap roots to fit without bending. With sufficient cleaning, fertilizing and care these young trees grow to full bearing in five or six years. With proper attention they will continue in full bearing an average of, probably, twenty-five years.

Coffee-trees need much rainfall, and in the section of which this article treats, above one hundred inches fall annually. Coffee-trees bearing in part of their branches one year, do not produce any the following year from the same branches. A tree may bear on, say, eighty per cent of its capacity this year and the other twenty per cent next year, or vice versa. A coffee-bearing tree is a partially alternating quantity, and estimates from crops must necessarily bear this same per cent of leeway. The only way to make up for the lesser amount alternate years, is to plant so that sufficient new trees will come into bearing those years, thereby making up for the lean bearing of the other trees.

A VALLEY IN MEXICO WITH PLANTATION HOUSES AND COFFEE FIELDS
The plantation belonging to President Diaz may be seen several miles away across the valley

Another peculiar thing about coffee-growing which will affect results is this: Suppose on March 1 of any year, ten thousand trees blossom and during the

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MEXICAN-INDIAN GIRLS PICKING COFFEE
The gancho, or hooked stick, is used for pulling down the upper branches. The embroidered dress and striped skirt is the typical Mexican costume

SUN-DRYING THE COFFEE IN THE OPEN
The berries are placed on a large cement floor

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blossoming time a shower comes, and the blossoms of five hundred of these trees catch the rain in their calyxes before the blooms close, the coffee from that per cent of the trees will most likely be imperfect and streaked, and will shrink in weight per *maquila,* or measure, as compared with an equal amount of perfect coffee from the same trees. After the blooms close and hermetically seal themselves, there is small danger of any deleterious result from inclement weather, and the bud will grow, mature, and the berry ripen, according to local conditions of sunshine or cloudiness at harvest time, within a fortnight before or after nine months from the day the blossom appeared. The time of maturing in southern Mexico is between September 15 and April 15.

Coffee-picking is done by men, women and children, a fair average being six *maquilas* per day for grown persons. The trees are trimmed to average about twelve feet high and stand about nine feet apart, with spreading limbs which are drawn down to the picker by a *gancho,* or stick with a crook at one end. After the coffee is delivered at the receiving house, it goes through a dispulper which takes off the pulp or red cranberry-like meaty covering. This leaves it in hull, *pergamino,* the hull being covered by a syrupy substance. The next process is fermentation in vats and washing by machinery, then centrifugal drying, hot-air drying, hulling, polishing, separating by machinery for size classification, and lastly, hand assorting to remove all discolored beans, sacking and freighting to market. Only a small per cent of coffee-planters have machinery to complete the preparation described. Generally the coffee leaves the cafetals in *pergamino,* after sun-drying.

Some of the pitfalls along the way of foreigners to success in Mexican coffee culture may be avoided if the management will early recognize the great dissimilarity between the people, climate, and customs of these grown-up children, as most Mexican peons and Indians are, and the conditions which prevail in our own country. Most of the laborers live in pueblos (villages) among the mountains within the district and have their individual *jacals* (huts with thatched roof). Their household necessities are provided by cultivating their *milpa* (corn-field) which is allotted to each family by the president and *ayuntamiento* (council) of the municipality, from the municipality's lands on the mountain side, and by growing some *frijoles* (beans) and *chillies* (red peppers) and cutting *lena* (firewood) from the timbered lands on neighboring tracts. Climatic conditions are so favorable for most of the year that warm clothing is not needed, and a few yards of *manta* or cotton cloth, usually spun by the *mujeres* (women of the house) furnish the material for the family clothing, including the women's *huipiles* and *enaguas* (waists and skirts) and *camisas* (shirts for the children). Fully content with such conditions it is not strange that *hacendados* (ranchmen) find it difficult to induce these "mountain monarchs" to leave their habitations and become numbered members of a strange community to work under the direction of overseers speaking an unknown tongue and to house in *galeras* (quarters) with strangers. The wonder is not that they do not, but that they *do* exchange their home life for that of the *haciendas.*

Generally the Mexican Indians, for most peons and Indians are addicted to the curse of drink, spend their small earnings for *pulque, tequila* or *aguar-diente* — liquors made, the two former from the maguey plant, the latter from sugar-cane. This habit, indulged in as it is, to great excess, at most *haciendas,* unfits the laborers, as a rule, for the first two days after receiving their pay. The manager who will exclude all intoxicants, pay cash for labor weekly, require cash payment for merchandise at the company store, provide good comfortable houses, free schooling, ample wholesome amusements, and humane consideration of his employees, need not import "contract" or "convict" laborers into Mexico to insure success in his fields or in other departments of his coffee industry. The conditions referred to as in force at the plantation particularly cited, if applied at other places, should produce equally favorable results, with this proviso: the manager should be able to speak, read and write the Spanish language.

Drawbacks, expected and unexpected,

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such as sudden wind storms causing loss in the blooming or ripening season, must of course be met; attacks from *mancha* and coffee parasites must be prevented by careful spraying and the removal of gray moss from the trees. Such problems must all be answered by those engaging in coffee culture in Mexico before success is reached, and the stockholder smiles approval to the managing staff.

THE HOUSEKEEPER'S NEED OF THE BALLOT

BY

MOLLY WARREN

WOMAN suffrage is to-day a world movement. Witness the spectacular and athletic attempts of English women to break into Parliament, the enfranchisement of the women of Scandinavia, the reports of progress in Australia and New Zealand and the campaigns in Oregon, Oklahoma, and West Virginia. To-day, too, it is a subject for statistics instead of sentiment. Industrial conditions have altered it and brought forth new arguments for it. Two of these twentieth-century arguments have come from two Chicago women, and since the purpose of both speakers has been to gain the ballot for other Chicago women, these appeals have naturally been for municipal suffrage.

One of them — many people regard it as the best plea ever made for giving the ballot to woman — was made some time ago by Jane Addams of Hull House. Unfortunately, it is not in the list of official pamphlets issued by the National American Woman Suffrage Association; nor is it found in the famous "Democracy and Social Ethics." Miss Addams argues that the city has a big job of housekeeping on its hands and that it needs the women to help, because they know better how to keep things clean and picked up and beautiful than men do. They know the way to take care of houses and water and food, because they have been doing the work for years. Public housekeeping, in fact, became the duty of women as soon as men stopped building walls around cities to keep the enemies out and began to look after matters inside.

The other Chicago woman goes still farther and says that though the city wall may be down, there is still a moat around the home. She insists that the moat be filled up and the drawbridge be traded off to the secondhand dealer; for the home can no longer be sufficient unto itself — conditions of modern city life do not permit it.

"Without the suffrage, no woman can be a highly successful home-maker," said Miss Sophronisba P. Breckinridge of the University of Chicago in an address before the National Suffrage Convention, two weeks ago.

Truly a new idea is this to us who have supposed that the ideal homemaker was she who kept her house in strict order, who thought in terms of "John, my husband, and Nellie and Willie, my children," and stayed at home without desire to stray afield to club or polls. While we have given due and deserved praise to the public-spirited woman, we have never felt that she was the peer of the domestic woman — in the realm of things domestic.

"To the woman who wishes to devote her whole time to her home, I would say 'Do your job as well as possible,'" says Miss Breckinridge. "'But to do it, you must take into account that housekeeping is becoming more and more a public function.'"

This statement is founded on fact and careful study, upon a clear view of existing conditions. We see that along with

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the removal of spindle and loom from home to factory has gone control of food supplies to the public. Women no longer draw water from wells in their city yards. She who lives in an apartment is debarred from keeping a cow quite as much as the famous dwellers in glass houses are from throwing stones. She finds it cheaper to buy bread than to bake it in the gas range. Lacking a storeroom, she buys preserves and jellies as needed. Fruit trees and a vegetable garden are not for her who dwells in the fourth flat. Considering though, that a woman is quite as much concerned with these food supplies as when they were prepared under her own eyes, it is consistent that she have the power to exercise a large degree of control over them when they are produced outside the home.

Milk, which ranks third among the foods most used, is controlled wholly by public means. More and more is pure milk coming to be a matter of concern to the housekeeper, particularly if she has little children. She realizes too, that she must trust to municipal control for the quality of the supply, for only through this means can she be sure that the dairy herd has stood the tuberculin test and that the best facilities are offered for early delivery of bottles to customers after the milk is drawn from the cow.

Everywhere milk legislation is being considered. The Illinois State Board of Health lately issued a pamphlet laying stress on the relation of milk to the care and feeding of infants. Last May the Board of Health of the city of Chicago produced a circular stating the indifference of the general public to the milk question and calling upon the milk-dealer to do the bulk of the work — a demand practically impossible to enforce. This shows clearly the need that the housekeeper take an active political interest in providing her home with a pure milk supply.

Then too, while there are adequate ordinances providing for clean bottles, a good per cent of fat, and for careful inspection of milk brought into the city, if these laws are to be enforced from day to day, the housekeeper must see that the men elected or appointed to office live up to their duties. In her home she is conscientious about little things. She must carry this quality into public dealings, making officials feel that she is watching how they handle food supplies. For this she needs the ballot. Moral suasion, accompanied by a vote in the husband's name only, avails little. Unenfranchised interest will have less weight with the man who shirks his job, than the cold fact that the ballot of his visitor may help to put him out in the next election.

In the Revised Municipal Code for Chicago are provisions for a bakery and bread control, but they are inadequate in their practical demands. The woman who buys bread has a right to insist that it be made from the best materials and under sanitary conditions. True, the ordinances provide that no one shall use a bakery as a bedroom; but they do not include the requirement that bread be kneaded by mechanical means so that the dough shall not be salted with the sweat from the brow of the baker whose hands are embedded in the sticky mass. Intelligent legislation is necessary to gain this and also needed regulation of other food stuffs. There should be laws against exposing fruits and vegetables to the dust of the street, and against putting bug killers directly upon berries intended for market.

Recently the daily papers have been telling us how largely candy is adulterated. This is a question of moment to the homemaker. But not only the substances put into candy but the conditions under which it is made should be considered. Many mothers regard candy wrapped in tissue paper as particularly pure and free from disease, but this very paper is wrapped about bonbons in tenement sweatshops where germs and dirt are rife.

Sweatshop labor appears elsewhere too. Much of the sewing formerly done at home is now produced by outside work. Boys' suits, once made at home, are bought outright; underclothes, stockings, shirts, sheets, towels — who makes them nowadays? The housekeeper is concerned all the same, just as much as when she did make them. Many of these articles are directly finished in the sweatshop. During the late epidemic of scarlet fever a charity visitor found a woman in a shop working buttonholes in a boy's

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vest, while on her lap lay a baby very sick with scarlet fever. An incident, this, little less grisly than the story of the inspector who found two children shelling pecans in a three-by-six room in a tenement, two years ago. They were piling the nut meats in neat heaps on a coverlid beneath which lay their father nearly dead of smallpox!

The best housekeepers will try to fight the sweatshop and its disease-bearing products by buying goods only at the best shops. But because these shops do not manufacture their own goods, sweated products may creep in as in the case of an "imported" hat at a place with a very French name and prices to correspond. The roses on this creation were traced to the patient work of an invalid child in a Halsted street tenement. The ballot alone, in the hands of the homemaker, can guard her and her family by electing men who will abolish the sweatshop forever.

Food, clothes and shelter are the chief material needs of the home. Since the greater part of city residents no longer own their homes, the control of shelter has passed over into public hands. New tenements and apartment houses are going up all over the city. From the time the permit is issued for building, these structures are under municipal law. There are regulations as to fire escapes, staircases, windows, size of rooms, and of halls and passages. The woman compelled to live *ensemble* instead of *solo* fashion is concerned with how her house is built as much as when she spent hours over books of plans. It makes great difference to her whether her children play in light or dark halls. How the plumbing is arranged affects the health of her household. Light and air — years of experience have taught her their necessity. Yet not long ago there was a discussion in the city council as to the merits of a proposed ordinance requiring every alcove to have a window. The good housekeeper would not have considered the negative side of the question worth investigating. This mere incident shows that for the sake of her dwelling house, woman needs the ballot.

She needs it too to make new laws. The Chicago housekeeper watches the daily bulletins of the pumping stations. If she is seeking good water at a minimum of time and expense, she can readily see that she does not get it by buying bottled water at the corner drug store or by spending twenty minutes a day boiling and filtering the present supply. If she had the ballot she could improve conditions. Municipal suffrage in the case of New Orleans women has gained for that city a fine system of waterworks where the murky water of the Mississippi River is strained, softened, and filtered before it flows into the public-carrier pipes. New Orleans suffragists assert that a woman should no more tolerate bad city water in her faucets than she should the presence of a dead cat in her private well — if she had one.

"If Chicago women could vote," exclaimed a soiled and angry woman last week in a grocery store, "they'd soon do away with this smoke nuisance. I can not keep myself clean, let alone my rugs and my children. And they would pass an ordinance double quick compelling people to clean their sidewalks after a snow-storm. My children are lame and cross as bears from falling on the ice before the house opposite. I watched my husband fall on his way to the train this morning; the woman two doors south broke her leg in two places from slipping on an icy pavement — it is a disgrace to the town — —"

"Yes," said the woman to whom she was talking, "in Kansas where women have the municipal ballot, you find things different. It is as important that approaches to houses be kept neat as the houses themselves, but except for reform in spots the ballot is the only thing."

In a short time all cities are going to hear more about garbage disposal. Sewerage too is becoming more and more a matter of moment. The complete removal of waste matter is dear to the heart of the up-to-date woman who no longer lets her closets and drawers fill up with rubbish and who long since has abolished the annual house-cleaning. She is going to be concerned in this coming question as to whether the city shall own a garbage plant and her fingers will fairly itch to get into the pie. By the ballot comes her opportunity.

For a long time women have been seeing that they could not manage some of

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these things single-handed and even those most addicted to the "sphere" idea have read with interest accounts of coöperative housekeeping. In 1880 Melissa Fay Pierce published a volume in which she tried to get housekeepers to control market supplies by coöperation "in their sphere without getting into the mire of politics." "What in heaven's name," she wrote, "can the ballot do for the housekeeping problem? What for the expense of the living problem? What for the wages-to-operatives problem? What for moral, commercial, hygienic and artistic problems?"

Yet to-day, twenty-five years later, legislation is trying to do these very things. Her view was right at that time. The arguments of Miss Breckenridge are more modern.

STUDYING THE MIND OF ANIMALS

BY

JOHN B. WATSON

INSTRUCTOR IN EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The average person is interested in animals and particularly in what is getting to be called animal psychology. It is one thing, however, to watch the habits of birds and foxes, and quite another to experiment with animals as psychologists experiment in their laboratories. Dr. Watson is one of the most successful of the younger workers in this new and fascinating field. The importance of the conclusions which he states in his brief paper will be apparent to any one who has ever speculated on the intelligence shown by his favorite dog or cat, or who has ever watched trained animals. His paper is further important as an illustration of the difference between genuinely scientific observation and the writing of story books. Dr. Watson is now in the midst of other experiments which are likely to prove not only of interest but of real importance to the psychologist and nerve specialist.

IS it a wild speculation to suppose that we shall ever be able to state just what goes on in the mind of our dog as he bays at the figure of the man in the moon, or growls at the shadow of some cat which lives in the neighboring yard? Can we ever be sure of what is passing in his mind as he now yelps with delight at the sound of our voice, then leaves us to "smell and make up" with some wandering and friendless cur? The problem is not so difficult as it appears at first sight. Insuperable difficulties confront us if we attempt to get into the mind of the animal and directly see what is going on there. Yet hardly other than those that confront us when we try to figure out the mental state of the man who, after running for six blocks, fails to catch the rear platform of the last down-town express. In the case of the man, however, we feel reasonably sure that we know what he is thinking. True, we can not get into his mind and see for ourselves just what ideas are rising, waxing and waning and rising again: we may be too far away to question him or to hear what he is saying; how then do we come by this proximate knowledge of what he is thinking? By noting carefully what he does!

If we think carefully of the way we find out what our human companions are thinking, we can not fail to be struck by the fact that our only method for obtaining such information is to be had in observing their conduct. If they act in the way we should act if we were placed in similar circumstances, we unhesitatingly

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assume that their mental processes are similar to our own. This same method ought to hold good in the study of animals, provided we carry out the method with the same care in the animal world that we employ in the study of men. If it is objected that language, the ability to communicate thought, forever makes the study of man different from that of the animal, we must at once take the position that language after all is nothing but a highly elaborated and complex form of behavior. We should further maintain that if the behavior of any animal were as varied and intricate as that of man, such an animal would necessarily exhibit language in some form or other which would be entirely comparable in complexity with the language of man.

The possibility of learning more about the mental life of animals becomes a probability when we consider that our knowledge of the mental processes of infants, children and defective individuals is obtained almost entirely without the aid of language. The moment we take this broader point of view, that the behavior of man expresses his psychology, and are willing to admit that we can scientifically study his behavior, it follows at once that we can build up an animal psychology, because we can study the behavior of animals just as scientifically as we can study the behavior of man.

The study of behavior thus becomes a broad science; normal adult human psychology forms only a part of its subject matter. The psychology of infants, of children, of the feeble-minded, of primitive peoples, of animals, all form a part of the world to be observed by the psychologist. The behavior of animals alone is a much broader field than is usually supposed at first glance. Mammals, birds, fishes, even the lowly unicellular organisms, and possibly the sensitive plants, are all embraced in any complete scheme of the study of mind.

With such a vast system of work before him then, the animal psychologist will not be downcast if after years of patient study he fails to find his animal reasoning, imitating, imagining. By his toil he will have established a series of facts, and this will mean far more to him and to his science than that he should gratify his anthropomorphic emotions, as do many so-called naturalists, at the expense of the accuracy of observation.

So impressed have psychologists become of the truth of these facts that we find latterly in many of the larger universities especial facilities provided for the study of animals. Men trained both in biology and in psychology are set aside to untangle the skein of the mental life of these animals. In a few years we can safely predict that one of our familiar adages can be made to read, "What is a psychology laboratory without a menagerie?" and the moiety of truth expressed in the new version will not be less than is found in the old. Furthermore, the time is not far distant when experiment stations will be established for the exclusive study of the minds of animals.

Surely the evolution of mind is no less worthy of study than is the evolution of the bodily structure! Considering the enormous number of exact studies on the structure of animals we have already at our command, we firmly believe that from now on, the evolutionary study of behavior will yield far more fruitful results for the guidance of human conduct than will further studies on morphology alone. And in saying this, we do not mean to decry the usefulness of such structural studies in the past nor their possible value in the future.

Let us turn to consider a little more intimately the way our well-trained student of animal psychology pursues his work. In the first place, he must be prepared to watch his animals day in and day out, not for weeks, but for months. He must spend the greatest care upon them, doing his best to keep them in uniformly good condition. Time and money are spent upon their diet and the utmost precautions are taken to provide them with a warm and cleanly habitation. The higher we ascend in the animal scale, the greater care we must exert to keep our animals happy, and finally, when we reach the higher mammals, the conditions maintained for their care are not unlike those obtaining in any (well-kept) nursery.

The necessity for such care will be appreciated when we consider the fact that the uniformity of the behavior of the animal depends upon his bodily condition. If an animal is stuffed one day and

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starved the next, his behavior will show it; if he is freezing at one time and suffering with heat at another, his reactions will alter accordingly.

The next most important concern of the investigator is to obtain the tamest animals which can be purchased or bred. This likewise calls for a vast expenditure of time on his part. To keep any animal gentle, it is necessary to handle him every day. Unfortunately, this precaution has not been sufficiently observed even by trained investigators. The reason for this state of affairs is not far to seek. The conditions at the universities where animal psychology is studied are not ideal either for the animal or the student. Not enough space can be obtained and the men who are actually engaged in the work can devote only a small part of their time daily to it. With the coming of better conditions in our laboratories this now more or less neglected factor will receive attention.

The animals which are later to be observed should be taken in hand when they are young. Only in this way can the student of their behavior learn to know the "personal side" of his animal. This need shows itself still more clearly when we consider the numberless chance associations which animals either establish for themselves or with the aid of their attendants. Animals which have once lived in public gardens are quite useless to serve as subjects for scientific studies on behavior. The otherwise careful English investigator, Hobhouse, did not fully recognize this fact, and some of his conclusions as regards the presence of the higher mental processes in animals can not be accepted until the work is done over again upon animals whose prior history is known.

To make this matter clearer, suppose we take a specific example, one chosen from the writer's experience with Rhesus monkeys. It would be a very simple matter for a fourteen months' old child to learn to pull in, by means of a very light toy wooden rake, an object which it could not reach with its hands, and yet, Jimmie, a very tame Rhesus monkey of mine, spent many days in trying to learn this simple act and had not learned to manipulate the rake when our patience ran out. Jimmie was kept moderately hungry at the time of the experiments; he was tethered just out of reach of some very tempting food (malaga grapes). A light toy wooden rake was given him. Instinctively, he grasped it, bit it, then dropped it and began straining at his tether and reaching out as far as possible with his fore-leg, making vain efforts to scratch in his food. The rake was then put around one of the grapes and the handle extended toward Jimmie. Instantly he grasped the handle as before and jerked it, and the grape rolled within reach of his paw. The rake was dropped and forgotten and the faithful paw utilized for the completion of the act.

Now what happens when the grape has been eaten? The rake is still within his reach and the grapes are still outside the pale! Does he perceive the relationship existing between "food out of reach, rake will lengthen paw, ergo, use rake?" Not Jimmie! And he is the brightest of six! As long as you will kindly hook the blade of the rake around the grape and extend the handle toward him, he will condescend to pull in the rake and consequently the grape, but he has never yet both pushed out and then pulled in the rake of his own initiative. If Jimmie had been purchased from a zoölogical garden and had previously learned such a trick or a similar one, and had we tested him, ignorant of his accomplishment, we might have a far different opinion of his mental make-up from the one we now have. Certainly, no one who has followed the behavior of Jimmie and his five mates for one year would be inclined to accede to Mr. Garner's wonderful statements concerning the presence in monkeys of the "powers" of reasoning, imitation, etc.

However, even the legitimate psychologists have not lost hope, as yet, of finding these mental functions in animals. More and more systematic work is being done along this field and the effort is constantly being made to make our tasks more and more like those to which the animal is accustomed on his native heath. It is perfectly natural for all animals to be hungry and to seek for food even when the obtaining of it offers difficulties.

The desire for food is one source of our control over the actions of our animals. Various forms of "problem boxes" containing food, but which require the mov-

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ing of some simple mechanism before the food can be obtained, represent one kind of task which the animal is forced to perform. A modification of this method, useful with animals which desire each other's company or the freedom from enclosures, is obtained by placing the animal in a narrow enclosure and putting the food or other animals outside. A twofold stimulus is thus presented—food and the freedom from restraint. Such a method can be worked very well on a number of animals, cats especially. Problem-boxes can be made very complex or very simple and they can be adapted individually to the sensory and motor equipment of the particular animal under observation. Every animal requires a set of problem-boxes particularly adapted to his anatomical structure and instincts.

Hunger is not the only stimulus which can be used to make the animal form these associations. We said above that the desire (using "desire" in a non-technical sense) for companionship can serve the same purpose as that of hunger. Freedom from a confining space, punishment, words of encouragement and the desire for sexual gratification are other stimuli which can be used with varying success, depending upon the animal employed. The sexual instinct is exceedingly well marked in the monkey and in the rabbit; the cat becomes frantic when confined, the chick is "despondent" if separated from its mates. Students of animal psychology are not all agreed as to the best incentive to make the animal work. Food, however, is the one which has been most widely used up to the present time.

Let us complete the picture of the methods used by our student of animal psychology. His animal is hungry; food is near by, in plain view, or at least within smelling distance, but out of the immediate control of the animal. But the animal must do something, turn a latch, pull out a bolt or gnaw a string before he can obtain the food. Our student sits patiently by with pencil, paper and stop-watch in hand. Each tentative trial, every random and foolish movement of the animal is carefully put down in the notebook. The moment the animal reaches the food, the watch is stopped and a record of the time consumed by the animal in this first "trial and success" is made.

Be the time of the first "success" long or short, accomplished with few random and wild movements or with many, the animal is set to work a second and third time upon the same problem. Only three or four trials can be given to the animal each day on account of the possible dulling of the edge of his appetite, and since only the simplest problems can be mastered in so few trials, the animal is put back into his cage until the corresponding time on the following day. This routine is repeated day by day until the animal can solve the problem without making random movements.

Suppose now we have varied in a number of ways the problems which are presented to our animals, and that we have records of the time and the errors of many animals in solving these same problems, what are we forced to think about the nature of their minds? Surely, if any of our animals could immediately perceive the "hitch" in the mechanism of the box and act upon this perception as an intelligent child would do, the facts would come out in some of the experiments. If one animal could imitate what another animal does, or if he could imitate the actions of his trainer, we should likewise not long remain ignorant of this function in him.

Most of the evidence so far collected, however, points to the fact that if animals possess what in man are called the higher mental functions they keep them pretty well hidden. The majority of animal psychologists now hold that the so-called "trial and error" method of learning is the one typified by the behavior of animals. This method of learning by "happy accident" or chance success, as it is sometimes called, can be illustrated by considering the way the white rat gets into the problem boxes shown in the accompanying photographs. In one of these boxes, the rat has to lift an old-fashioned outside latch. After the trick is learned, he does it in three or four seconds. One seeing only the complete act is wont to express admiration for the rat's cleverness in no uncertain terms. How different would one's view be if forced to watch the whole process of learning!

When the box is first presented to him, he runs over it and around it, biting at

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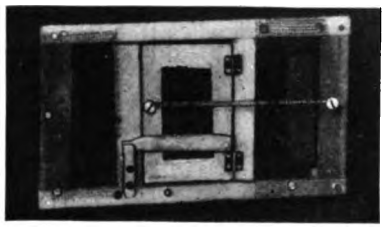


PROBLEM I

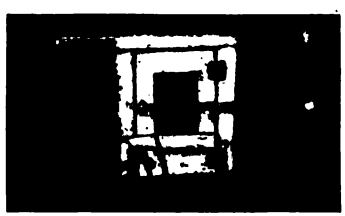
To reach the food within the box the white rat has to lift an old-fashioned outside latch. After various trials he accidentally gets his nose under the latch and raises it with sufficient force to lift the latch from its socket. Then the door, fastened to a spring, flies open. After the trick is learned, the rat does it in three or four seconds, but he may take an hour and several repetitions to learn it

the wires, poking his snout or paws between the meshes; leaving this he scampers around and over the box again; then he sits idly by for a time and makes his "toilet," washing his face and hands and fur. This done, he bounds for the box again. By testing every corner of the box, he inevitably finds the door and the spring which is attached to it. These will move when pushed or pulled while the rest of the box is stationary. After a time, he happens to stick his nose down on the bottom edge of the door, possibly to investigate a new smell or to bite his toe. He raises his head suddenly—and by reason of the physically inevitable fact that by raising his snout he strikes the underneath edge of the latch with sufficient force to raise it from its socket, the door will fly open. The problem is thus solved! This may take anywhere from two minutes to one hour, depending upon how soon the rat bites his toe underneath the latch or how soon any number of other equally happy accidents may lead in the same way to the same result.

But the second time? Does the rat go to the latch and raise it without useless movements? By no means! In individual cases even, a first success may profit the animal nothing. If a large number of time records, however, are averaged, the time of the second opening of the box is found to be shorter than that of the first; the third shorter than that of the second, etc., until the final time comes to represent that actually required to open the box in the most direct way.

The rat learns to open the other problem boxes shown in the photographs in this same hit-and-miss fashion. In Box II, he has first to bite the string in two before he can knock up the latch (he never unties the string)! In Box III, the animal must walk up an inclined plane until the increasing tension on the string causes the latch holding the door in place to rise from its socket.

These illustrations of the "trial and error" method of learning are chosen from animals which belong to the same genera as man. How do animals lying lower in the scale of development learn? Do they learn at all? These questions at present are somewhat disputed. Loeb holds that all animals which are less developed than the tree-frog show no signs of learning at all. Their movements, according to him, are determined in a purely mechanical fashion. The animals are forced to go hither and thither according to the way light, air vibrations, chemicals or other forms of physical motion bring about changes in the state of tension of the tissues of their bodies; i. e., whether these physical agents directly contract or expand the muscles of the body on the side upon which the stimulus



PROBLEM II

In this instance the rat has first to bite the string in two before he can lift the latch

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is exerting its force. It may be said at once, that, in this country at least, Loeb stands practically alone in this position. Herbert S. Jennings, who has worked for years upon the behavior of lower organisms, has shown beyond the possibility of a doubt that the reactions of even the amœba, the lowest form of animal life, are variable and adaptable, and that they are by no means mechanical.

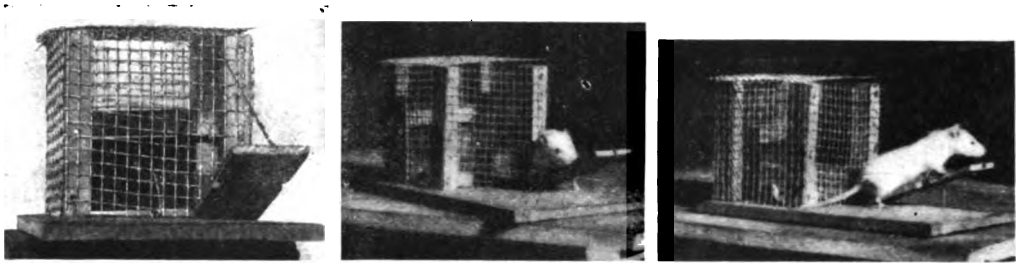
But determining the range of animals in which the "trial and error" method of learning can be used is not the sole, nor in the opinion of this writer at least, the chief problem of the animal psychologist. A knowledge of the sensory equipment of the animal—the accuracy, kinds and delicacy of his sensations—is indispensable to further progress in this field.

Which of my animal's senses are his important ones? Are all his senses equally well developed? Do they give him the same information about the outside world as our own give us? Does he see all the colors, for example, as we see them, or does he react only to their brightness? Does he by any chance use senses which man either does not possess at all or else possesses in vestigial form? These questions can all be answered and along with thousands of others must be answered before the fullest knowledge of the origin and the development of the human mind can come.

With even this short and incomplete sketch of what the experimental student of animal mind has to be and to do, is it any wonder that the "literary naturalist" has had to face scathing criticism for his distortion of the facts about animal behavior? Let it be said, however, that there is abundant room for the purely literary treatment of real or fancied incidents in animal life. "Rikki-tikki-tavi" and many other stories might be cited in support of this assertion. The conflict between the scientific and the literary points of view arises only when the literary man attempts to clothe the airy creatures of his fancy with the somber garments of fact.

In equally striking contrast to our present methods of the study of mind in animals, stand those of the older school of animal psychologists. Read the prefaces to the many books of Romanes, Darwin, Lindsay, Lubbock and others, and see how their "facts" were obtained. Myriads of anecdotes are told of dogs and cats opening latches, of dogs buying penny buns and accepting only the correct change in return for a larger coin, of monkeys making up their own beds. The list is innumerable. These anecdotes were collected by letters, from all parts of the world, taken on trust. But nowhere do you find a complete or even an incomplete statement of the precise way these tricks were learned.

If the material contributed by the present-day student of animal behavior is not so thrillingly interesting as that of the Thompson-Setons, nor so supra-human in its implications as that of his anecdotal friends, he must comfort himself with the thought that in offering it unadorned as he does, he is adding another stone to the ever-growing structure of modern science.



PROBLEM III
Here the rat must walk up an inclined plane

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THE FIGHT TO SAVE THE CHILDREN

BY

A. J. McKELWAY

ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

BETWEEN the years 1885 and 1892 there was considerable discussion of the evils of child labor in this country, with its effect marked by the state legislation of the period. The country was in a prosperous condition and the demand for workers made the presence of children in the factories conspicuous. The laws framed at that time, however, were little more than the recognition of the fact that the state had the right to interfere in behalf of the child whose parents were either too ignorant to appreciate the effects of child labor or too indifferent to the child's welfare to protect it from injury. During this period Alabama enacted a law that children under a certain age should not be compelled to work more than eight hours a day.

Then followed a time of indifference to the evil, the reformers being satisfied with the enactment of the laws and the employers of children being satisfied with the inefficiency of the laws. And during this period in the South there began that enormous expansion of the cotton manufacturing business with an increase from six hundred and sixty-seven thousand spindles in 1880 to nine million seven hundred thousand in 1907. In Alabama, more than in other southern states, northern capital was invested in the mills, and the capitalists, finding the eight-hour law for children in the way of their dividends, persuaded the Alabama legislature to repeal the law. That was the beginning of the present fight for the children that has extended over the nation.

In 1901 Edgar Gardner Murphy, of Montgomery, Alabama, began an agitation against the growing evil in his own state. Northern and southern mill owners in Alabama united to defeat the bill before the legislature. Then he kindled a fire in the rear of the Massachusetts men by an appeal to the press of Boston. His pamphlets, illustrated with photographs taken by himself, were widely distributed; both the northern and southern press took up the fight, with practical unanimity; and it is interesting to note that from 1901-3 the following states passed new laws or amended the old ones: Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, Washington, Wisconsin. The Georgia legislatures of 1901 and 1903 both failed to pass any child labor law.

But the ineffectiveness of the legislation in most of the states continued to be evident. Mr. Murphy, having moved to New York, in the meantime, began in 1904 a movement for the organization of a National Child Labor Committee, which is largely responsible for the present degree of interest on the subject. Since 1904, in more than a score of states, the laws have been amended or passed for the first time, as in Delaware and Georgia.

But the investigations of the committee have proved that the evil, in spite of legislation, is actually on the increase. Some factory inspectors have been inefficient, in some states the certificates stating the age of the child are sold by the magistrates, the perjury of the parents who wish to live from the labor of their children has become notorious, in many states there is no factory inspection, and the law is violated with impunity. It was becoming evident that a whole gen-

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eration of children would be sacrificed to the demand for child labor that the mines and factories created and the greed or ignorance of the parents supplied with their own offspring.

Senator Beveridge became interested in the problem and once, in a campaign speech, touched upon the evil as one threatening to our institutions. The audience instantly manifested its keen interest in the subject, and other audiences showed that they were more interested in this than in any of the political problems he had been discussing. With his experience in the passage of the meat-inspection bill, he saw at once that the whole problem could be easily controlled by the Congress of the United States, through the power given it over interstate commerce. He announced that he would introduce a bill prohibiting interstate carriers from transporting, from one state to another, the products of any mine or factory where children under the age of fourteen were employed. The National Child Labor Committee earnestly discussed the endorsement of this measure, Mr. Murphy, to the great regret of his former colleagues, dissenting from the decision of the majority; and the fight is now on in Washington for the enactment of a national law.

The appeal which the child-slave makes, with no choice whether he shall work or not, with no control over the conditions of his employment, wages or hours or conditions of health or safety, with no right to the rewards of his labor, and perforce shut out from the opportunities which should be open to every American child, i. e., the chance of an education, is a more telling appeal than that which sent this nation to war and the dreadful sacrifices of war over African slavery.

The census figures for 1900 are an incorrect representation of the extent of the child labor evil in 1907, with the overwhelming proof that the evil is on the increase. The census bulletins on manufactures issued in 1905 are no authority, for they are the mere compilation of the reports of the manufacturers, who are growing sensitive, fortunately, about this wholesale employment of children, and would often incriminate themselves by telling the whole truth. Yet the Alabama manufacturers report an increase in four years of twenty-seven per cent. In the more advanced states the house-to-house canvass of the census enumerators must be defective, for the reason that the parents who had asserted that their children were over the legal age would not always confess the true ages of the children employed.

Nevertheless, the census bulletin on child labor in the United States, No. 69, just issued, is a careful analysis of the census statistics of 1900, made by Dr. Joseph A. Hill, chief of the division of revision and results. And the facts there set forth are like a call to arms in defense of the children of the nation.

The census bulletin shows that in 1900, of the 9,613,252 children from ten to fifteen years of age, 1,750,178 were breadwinners, or 18.2 per cent of the whole. Of these, however, 1,061,971 were engaged in agricultural pursuits, perhaps the most wholesome training for a child if the work be not too severe, and the education of the child be not interrupted. But there remained 688,207 children in mines, factories, sweatshops, stores, the street trades, and other occupations which are for the most part injurious to the child, physically, mentally and morally. It has been proved beyond controversy that the ranks of our paupers and tramps and criminals are being recruited from the class of children whose lives were embittered by too early toil and not from the children who were sent to school.

Consider one of these occupations: the employment of children in textile industries, in the making of our clothing. For the products of that industry are used by us all, waking and sleeping, and from birth to death, from the swaddling clothes to the shroud. The social conscience of the nation is being awakened to this demand, that the purchaser of clothing has a right to be protected from buying child-made goods, has a right to know that he is not wearing garments stained with the life-blood of little children, just as he has a right to know that he is not eating premature veal under the name of potted turkey.

The census shows that 117,074 children are employed, from ten to fifteen years

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of age, as textile operatives and textile workers, 82,004 as employees of cotton mills, silk mills, woolen mills, and so forth, and 35,070 as textile workers, seamstresses, tailoresses, milliners and so forth, the names indicating that the most of these employees are girls. Note that this does not give the number under ten years of age, of which more presently.

Of the textile operatives, there are reported 44,427 in cotton mills, 8,267 in hosiery and knitting mills, 8,938 in silk mills, 6,625 in woolen mills; all others, 13,747. The silk and woolen mills and the knitting mills are mainly in the North. A few children from five to nine years of age are reported in the silk mills, the parents evidently being ignorant of the violation of the law. But the evil is at its worst in the cotton mills, as the beginning of child labor in England was in the cotton mills and, as Lord Shaftesbury remarked, "spread from the cotton mills into other industries." The same process has been observed in America. New England adopted the child-labor system when it bought its cotton-mill machinery in Old England, and the South has borrowed the same system, as it bought its machinery from New England.

And now I quote from the conclusions of the census bulletin, without comment: "To a greater extent than any other manufacturing or mechanical industry the cotton mill furnishes employment to children. Of the total number the New England States contained 30.8 per cent and North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia, 49.6 per cent. . . . In the North about one cotton mill operative out of every ten was ten to fifteen years of age, while in the South the corresponding figures were about three out of every ten. As a rule the proportion of children was greater for females than for males in both sections of the country. . . . South Carolina showed the greatest proportion of young children, for in that state, 60.5 per cent of those ten to fifteen were under fourteen. Of the northern states, Maine showed the highest proportion, 34.4 per cent of the children in that state being under fourteen years of age. . . . In the South, 98.1 per cent of the cotton mill operatives ten to fifteen years of age were native whites with both parents native, while in the northern and western states only 12.2 per cent were in this class. . . . According to instructions, the enumerators were not required to report the occupation of a child under ten years of age. . . . An estimate can be made of the number of cotton-mill operatives under ten. Such an estimate gives the following number: for Massachusetts, 5; for Rhode Island, 8; for North Carolina, 394; and for South Carolina, 419. The actual minimum for Georgia was 184, which makes a total for the three leading southern states of 997."

The statistics show that in Spartanburg and Greenville counties, South Carolina, the enumerators, not required to report children under ten at work, reported one child of five, fourteen of seven, thirty-four of eight, ninety-eight of nine, 351 of ten, 391 of eleven, and 477 of twelve. And it should be noted that the hours of labor are sixty-six a week, which, with the half holiday on Saturday, makes twelve hours a day for the first five working days of the week, that sixty-six cotton mills in North Carolina run at night, that in 1905 six North Carolina mills reported to a state official that they employed from ten to fifty children under twelve, contrary to law, and that there has never been in the cotton manufacturing states a single prosecution for violation of the law, to my knowledge, while it is a matter of common knowledge that the violations of law are well nigh universal and grand juries refuse to indict the manufacturers.

One other fact from the census bulletin: "Of the total number of children five to nine years of age, one out of every two in the North goes to school as contrasted with one out of every five in the South, and of those ten to fourteen, the figures are, for the North, four out of ten and for the South, one out of thirteen. . . . In marked contrast with the figures for the employed children ten to fifteen years of age, are those for the general white population ten to fourteen."

If these conclusions of the census report are not a trumpet call to battle for the children's rights, the right to play and the right to schooling, what could be?

It is my own conviction from considerable observation and experience, that

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while the agitation of the subject in the South, resulting in the first efforts at legislation, has taken the more conspicuous examples of child labor — the six and seven-year-old children — out of the mills conspicuously located, the percentage of children under sixteen and the number employed have both increased with the expansion of the industry in the South since 1900. The Blue Book Textile Directory, 1906-7, shows 209,000 operatives in southern cotton and knitting mills, double the number in the census of 1900. Thirty per cent of these would be 62,700. If there has been an increase of five per cent we should have 73,150, while the actual number of children under ten, as distinguished from the few reported by the enumerators, would swell the total to 75,000.

Under the interstate commerce clause of the Constitution, Congress has twice prohibited the importation of convict-made goods from abroad. The power of Congress in the regulation of interstate and foreign commerce is precisely the same, by many decisions of the Supreme Court. Can not Congress prohibit interstate commerce in child-made goods? Will not the nation force its public servants to abolish this hideous abuse of childhood, with its threatening effects upon the future citizens of the nation?

I am of the opinion that the American people will find a way to abolish child-slavery in the republic.

WALCOTT, THE NEW KING OF SMITHSONIA

BY

WILLARD FRENCH

THERE'S an official chair in Washington—not in the White House—which comes nearer to the prerogatives of a throne than many realize. It is not inherited, but its occupant sits there for life. He is the ranking scientist of the realm, the counselor and adviser of the government in all things scientific. He has prestige beyond the president of any university or college, or the head of any scientific school in America. When he steps out of his domain he still remains one of the highest government officials, to be addressed as "Mr. Secretary," on rank with cabinet officers. Yet he is not beholden to the United States Treasury for his pay. United States authority can not disturb him. He is not accountable to the President. The President can not remove him. He is not responsible to Congress. Congress can not command him. He owes official allegiance only to a board of regents. This board is composed of the Chief Justice of the United States, the Vice-President, three Senators appointed by the President of the Senate, three members of the House of Representatives appointed by the Speaker of the House, two citizens of Washington and four citizens of different states appointed by joint resolution of Congress, and of this body he is the chief executive officer. It is more of a matter than many realize to be secretary of the Smithsonian Institution.

For months the Institution has been without official head, under the most carefully conscientious guardianship of Richard Rathbun, one of the assistant secretaries. The regents have been casting about, all over the country, for a man of the right caliber who was not already too well located. The comparatively small salary, $7,500 at most, was in itself something of a barrier. Men properly prepared for the position were all drawing better pay, and even scientists sometimes consider such things—or their wives consider for them, which amounts to the same thing.

Several ineffectual efforts were made to fetch great men to Washington—efforts the regents deeply regretted when they failed, for it is not the thing for such a position to go begging. All the time the right man was already stationed in Wash-

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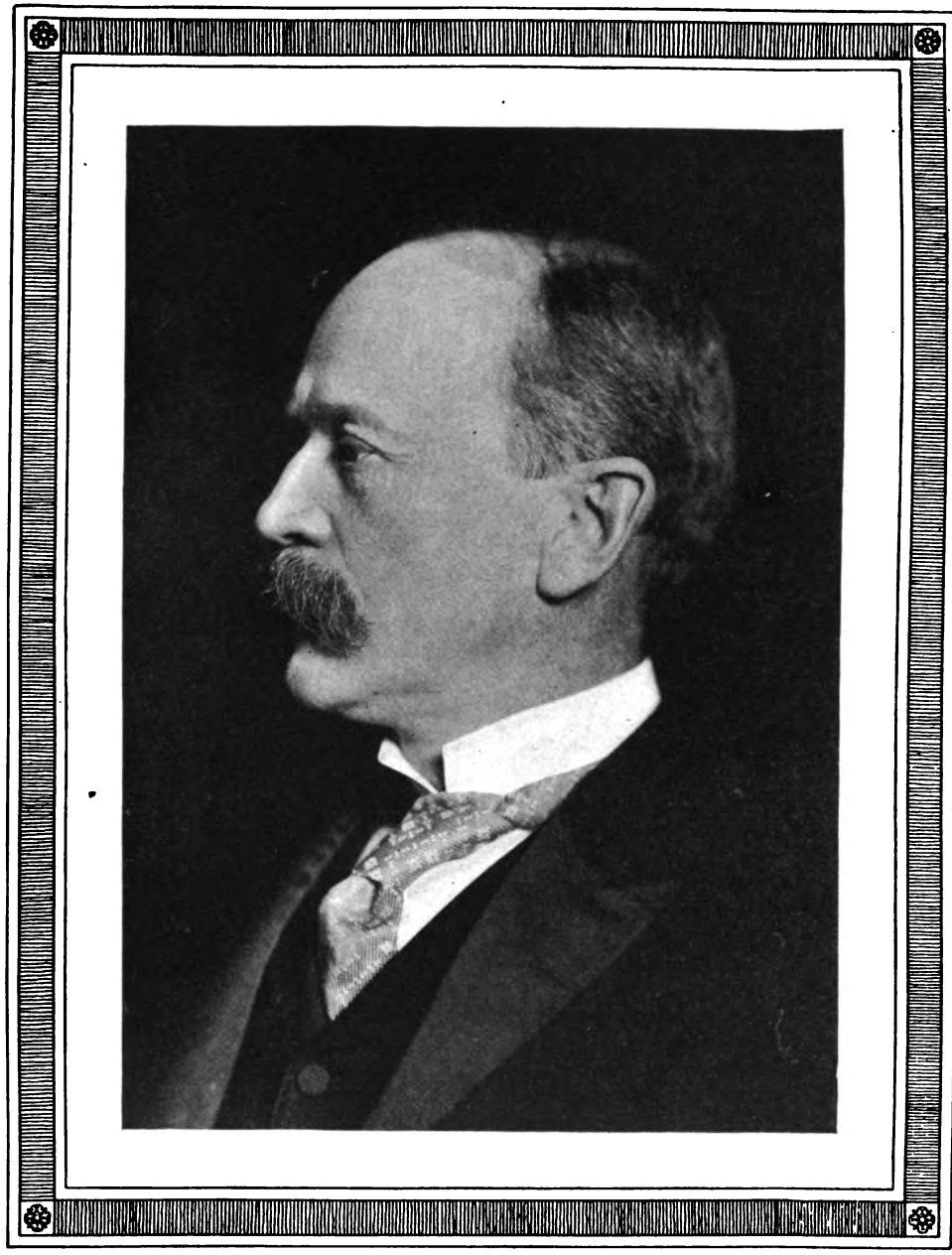

CHARLES DOOLITTLE WALCOTT
Recently elected secretary of the Smithsonian Institution

ington. The regents knew it and had had an eye on him from the first, but the President objected. He had good reason, for the man already occupied the government post of Director of the United States Geological Survey. For a dozen years and more he had been doing exceptional, almost incredible, work there. He had developed the department beyond anything imagined, and for the good of the country the President wanted him to remain there. Only after the regents had been at their ineffectual hunt for months, the President yielded, and for the greater

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good of the country, Charles D. Walcott was released from the Geological Survey and elected by the regents Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution.

In accepting the position Walcott also becomes the administrative head of the National Museum, whose magnificent new building is well above the foundation, now, in the Mall, opposite the Smithsonian buildings, and whose recent leap into new life demands such an executive guide as Walcott has well proved himself. He also becomes the head of the Bureau of American Ethnology, of the Bureau of International Exchanges, which is destined to be one of the most important functions of the institution, in carrying out the cardinal design of its founder, the distribution of knowledge among men. He becomes the head, too, of the Astrophysical Observatory and of the National Zoölogical Park, destined to be one of the great features of Washington. It makes a formidable array of responsibility requiring an administrator of rare executive qualities, in addition to the important necessity that he rank among the leading scientists of the world.

All Washington has known Walcott for years. He is not at all the recluse or the autocrat that he might be, but an exceptionally knowable man. And he knows the Smithsonian Institution, too, for he was assistant secretary there, years ago, in charge of the National Museum. At first glance the stranger, who meets him is rather surprised—he will be more surprised later on, but in a different way. Walcott is not precisely what one who knows the office, not the man, anticipates. He is instantly gracious, courteous, affable—all that, as any great man can be if he tries; but more, Walcott is a genius at being convenient, at being what you are, without a chasm across which you really need a field glass and megaphone.

If you are a scientist you will have no difficulty in discovering the magnitude of that side of him at once. If you are a manipulator of measures and things you will quickly find an executive mind par excellence. If you are Society you will know at a glance that he is one of you; his positions and salaries have all his life kept him a part of social things, with little opportunity to develop overshadowing eccentricities of genius. If you are a plain, every-day fellow, like most of us, why, Walcott is just as plain and every-day a fellow as you will meet. It always requires a second glance to see the rest of him; for he wears very little of himself in labels and placards.

He is tall, very tall, and rather slender; but he handles his length with uncommon grace and is an excellent reference for his tailor. His shoulders are broad and square and he manages himself with strength and nervous energy fully indorsing the capacity for hard work which all his life he has been exhibiting. These are naturally the first qualities you notice, for it requires a space of time for the eye to run up the height of him and reach his head which rests with a peculiar self-reliance on his shoulders. After that you think of little else. Like the rest of him it is thoroughly democratic. There's a very high forehead, high and bulging. The light brown hair, not a strand frost-bitten, is retreating from the front, leaving it bigger and bolder. There's a reddish-brown mustache which is heavy enough to conceal effectively the lips, but the chin speaks for itself of quiet determination with a reserve for effective dictation. The eyes are large and keen, the kind that see but always carry an inclination to cordiality. It is the face of a thoroughly successful business man under the forehead of a profound student, and when you think of it, that is precisely what Walcott is. His voice is deep and strong, more the voice of a soldier than a scientist, but he uses it in the measured deliberation of one who appreciates the value of words and is in no danger of overstraining or underestimating his convictions.

He is a rare combination of qualities, precisely the combination required for the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution. Nature has been extremely kind to him and he is one of the few who appreciate and reciprocate her compliments. He showed his own appreciation, too, of the position which the regents offered him by finally declining, for it, an offer of $20,000 a year from a private corporation which for some time has been pressed on him. Mathematically he is fifty-six years old, but he has no inclination toward indorsing the claims of the calendar. It is Time's fault, not his. He does not acknowledge it.

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

The Foreigner in the United States

By Norman D. Harris

PROFESSOR OF EUROPEAN DIPLOMATIC HISTORY,
NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

THE recent message of President Roosevelt in regard to the treatment of the Japanese in San Francisco has attracted wide attention and elicited much criticism. One paper characterized it as "the most dangerous and revolutionary that has ever come out of the White House." Such comment would seem to be the result of a misconception of the fundamental principles of government and international politics involved.

Mr. Roosevelt said nothing more or less than it was his duty to say when he wrote: "I authorized Mr. Metcalf to state that if there was failure to protect persons and property, then the entire power of the federal government within the limits of the Constitution would be used promptly and vigorously to enforce the observance of our treaty, the supreme law of the land."

As chief executive of the United States, he is empowered by the Constitution to enforce the laws. Since treaties, when ratified by the Senate, become laws of the land, he must insist that their provisions are fulfilled as well.

The Law of Nations possesses very definite regulations with reference to the position of resident aliens. Every state has the right of protecting its citizens abroad, and conversely is directly responsible to foreign governments for the proper treatment of foreigners domiciled under its own jurisdiction. When a citizen of one state takes up his residence within the territory of another, he owes at once an allegiance to the country of residence, and is expected to yield obedience to its civil and criminal laws.

Therefore since he must be subject to its laws, the foreigner is clearly entitled to the protection of our laws and of the government that made them. The United States has concluded, moreover, a special treaty with Japan guaranteeing her subjects who are living in this country "full and perfect protection for their persons and property"; and our federal government is accordingly under a double obligation to accord one class of aliens—the Japanese—proper protection and fair treatment.

Every state is responsible for injuries to resident aliens incurred through mob-violence, unless it has exercised every precaution to prevent it. Foreigners must be afforded as much protection in such cases, as is given native subjects or citizens. No more. No less. Our federal government is forbidden by the Constitution from interfering directly with force in such cases, as they apparently fall under the jurisdiction of the individual states. But the various states of the Union can not be held responsible by foreign nations for acts of violence to aliens, because they are not allowed constitutionally any intercourse with foreign powers. It seems clear then that the several states are directly responsible to the federal government for the enforcement of such treaty and international obligations.

The whole question of the status of the foreigner in America is a large one, and one of vital and increasing national importance. It includes not merely those aliens temporarily resident within our borders, but all who come year by year seeking admission. Congress has given us the "immigration laws" to regulate their influx. Why should she not go one step further and provide some general regulations for their protection and welfare while living here?

There are two reasons why it has not been done. In the first place the United States does not receive the subjects of all foreign states on the same basis. Some

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are welcomed. Others are admitted under a careful and suspicious inspection. Still others are excluded altogether with a decisive hand. This is our right and privilege, but would it not be wiser, better and more just to put them *all* in the same class and admit them under equitable and carefully formulated immigration laws?

In the second place, as explained above, the action of the federal government is limited by the fact that the execution of our treaty concerning the treatment of foreigners falls under the jurisdiction of the several states. In the present instance, then, it is California which is responsible for the enforcement of the treaty agreements. If she should prove unable to cope with the situation, what would be the result? Either the federal government would have to render assistance; or the treaty might be abrogated and a second "exclusion bill" follow. But no section or state of the Union should be permitted to decide what the policy of the American people is to be.

It is easily seen that it is dangerous to leave to the states the enforcement of far-reaching regulations of this sort. In cases where the rule works against the legitimate employment of federal power, in the fulfillment of its international obligations, a hardship is laid upon the government.

Here is evidently a defect in our Constitution; but it can be remedied by an amendment. Yet the desired end might be attained constitutionally, without resort to such a serious and complicated process, without increasing the powers of the central government in any alarming degree, or affecting materially the independent action and individuality of the several states.

In 1842, in consequence of complications arising over the question of jurisdiction in the celebrated case of the Canadian McCleod, Congress passed a law permitting a federal judge, by writ of habeas corpus, to secure jurisdiction in the case of any domiciled foreigner who "is in custody for an act done or omitted under any alleged right, title, authority, privilege, protection or exemption, claimed under the commission or order or sanction of any foreign state, or color thereof, the validity and effect whereof depend upon the law of nations." Mr. Webster was of the opinion that jurisdiction in all such cases belonged rightfully to the federal courts; and the supreme court has never set aside this legislation.

If it is legal for Congress to provide for the appeal of such cases to the federal courts, would it not be equally constitutional for Congress to provide, within certain well-defined limitations, general regulations concerning the treatment of aliens, the responsibility of state governments, the appeal to federal courts and officials, and the liability of state and local officials in the event of failure or neglect to enforce the laws?

In 1793, the United States was made a "laughing stock" among the nations because she advocated certain principles of neutrality, but was unable to punish her own citizens for infractions of the same rules. This was caused by a lack of municipal laws upon the subject of the enlistment of American citizens in the service of foreign belligerents in time of war; but it was speedily rectified by the passage of the American Foreign Enlistment Act of 1794.

Throughout the nineteenth century our government was subjected to similar criticisms. Even such a judicial writer as Mr. Hall wrote in 1891, with reference to the lynching of the Italians in New Orleans in that year, "The attitude assumed by the American government does not suggest that it is even yet willing to recognize as applying to itself in the most rudimentary form, those duties (toward foreigners) which by others it expects in an exaggerated degree." It is to be regretted that the constitutional limitations upon the powers of the federal government are such as to place it from time to time in seemingly contradictory positions.

We have every reason to be proud of the record of our nation ever since its admittance into the family of nations. No state has done more in the past one hundred years to raise the standard of international morality and to promote the establishment of an effective code of international law. Every patriotic and law-loving citizen must wish for no abatement of this progress. It is then certainly only right and just that the federal executive should have a free, as well as a strong, hand to enforce at home those principles he advocates abroad.

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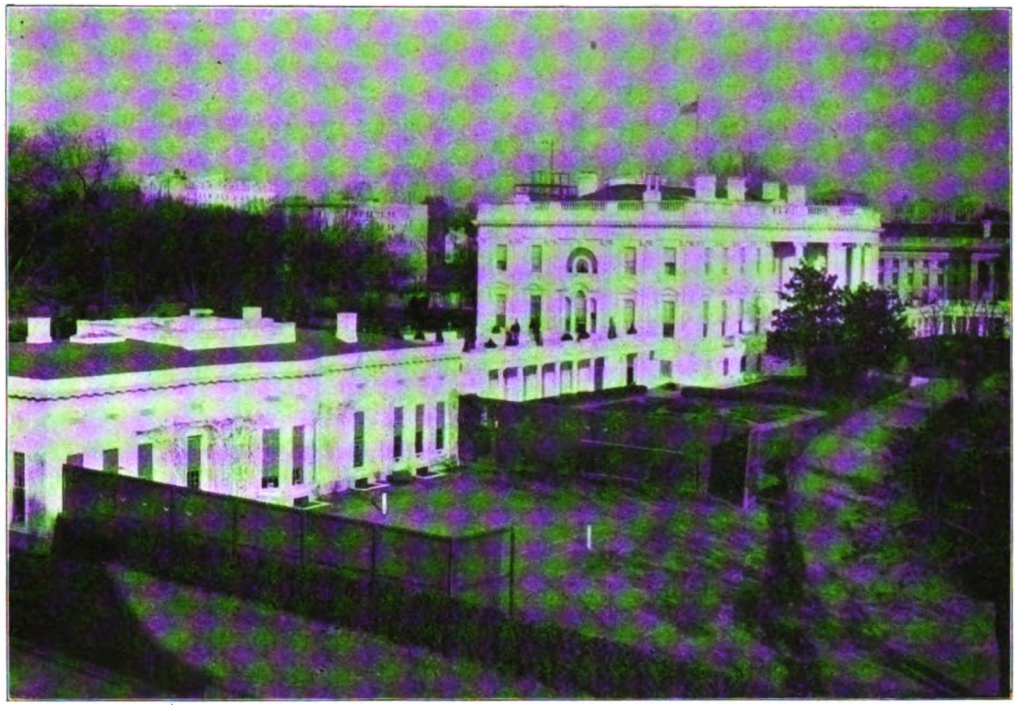

THE WHITE HOUSE, VIEWED FROM THE SOUTHWEST

The domestic portion of the White House is most prominent in this view. The building at the end of the wing leading from the main structure contains the President's offices. Adjoining it is his tennis court, hidden from the street by an inclosure of heavy dark green canvas. The President's fondness for tennis is well known, and already his court has been put in perfect trim, to be immediately available as soon as mild and fair weather shall permit play. Just under the walls of the White House is seen a small, formal garden, laid out in colonial style with old-fashioned shrubs and flowers. This was an idea conceived by Mrs. Roosevelt, and she takes great pride in her plans

There is need of a broader ideal of citizenship in this country—a citizenship that respects law and authority, that loves order, that does not quail at responsibilities. The United States is a member of the great family of nations, an honorable and worthy member. As American citizens we not only reap the advantages of this relationship in all our foreign relations, and commercial or other enterprises, but the responsibilities of the situation fall equally upon us.

The Success of American-Made Articles Abroad

By Charles A. Sidman

THAT manufactured articles of American origin have won their way into foreign markets by sheer force of superior quality is due mainly to the use of ingenious and highly effective machinery, the natural resources of the country, and to the skill of working-people who, by doing one thing continuously day by day and year by year, have learned to do it marvelously quickly, cheaply and well. Under this system of specialization there has grown up in our country a multitude of automatic workmen who, for the kinds of subdivided work in which they have been trained, are incomparably efficient.

That this is a fact is demonstrated by the enormous sales in the line of photographic goods, like films, plates, printing paper, cameras, and all accessories.

There is nothing made abroad that can surpass either in quality of material or workmanship the high-class automatic machine tools of American makers.

This is equally true of the typewriter, an American invention which has been imitated and copied in most European countries with one uniform result: cheaper machines have been produced, more or less efficient, but the really high-class machines, perfectly adjusted, balanced, adapted to their work, and good for many years of constant service, are still imported from the United States.

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THE INTERIOR OF A UNITED STATES MAIL AUTOMOBILE

The mail is sorted and sacked as it comes into the car. City letters are then passed to another car to be delivered without delay, only the mail for outside points going through the postoffice

Agricultural machinery: mowers, reapers, cultivators, and implements like spades, shovels, hoes and pitchforks, manufactured in America, dominate thus far the principal foreign markets because of their quality, combined with cheapness and ingenious adaptation to their purpose. It will be remembered that the American sewing-machine, which invaded Europe many years ago, still holds its own against foreign competition by virtue of its excellence. It is an assured fact that when we entered our high-grade bicycles into Europe, about ten years ago, they embodied a standard of lightness and perfection of workmanship which had not then been attained abroad.

It was the same way with our American factory shoes, so successful because they were distinctly superior in form, finish, durability, and comfort to anything of the same class with which they had to compete abroad. Foreign shoe manufacturers quickly recognized this and not only equipped their factories with American machinery, but imported American foremen and, in many cases, shoes to serve as models for their workmen.

In the line of fine hardware, including locks, hinges, and various fittings for house construction, our best goods are vastly superior, although their cost, which is somewhat higher, has limited their success in the European field.

Our leading manufacturers of silverware sell their goods in foreign cities side by side with the choicest work of the native silversmiths. The American machine-made watch and various mechanics' tools are equal, if not better, in quality to the best products made abroad.

These are some of the leading articles manufactured in this country that go to make up our enormous exports. The total of exports during the past fiscal year reached the imposing total of one and a half billions of dollars, of which two-thirds approximately represent the output of the soil, waters, forests and mines.

The Automobile and the Postoffice

By Ellis B. Usher

LAST month a new mail service was inaugurated in Milwaukee, which will revolutionize the collection and distribution of mail in large cities and their suburbs. Three automobile mail cars began collecting mail, and three more will be installed, July 1, to distribute mail to the substations. The cars were designed by Postmaster David C. Owen of Milwaukee, and carry a chauffeur and a collector on the outside and a distributer within. The inside man sorts and sacks the mail as it comes into the car. Only the mail for points outside the city will be delivered at the postoffice; city letters, already sacked for their respective substations, will be passed to another car to be delivered without delay.

The postoffice department began some experiments in the collection of mail with motor cars in Baltimore, last November, but the cars were makeshifts, merely old automobiles altered to fit the purposes of experiment. No distribution on the car

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THE NEW AUTOMOBILE USED BY THE UNITED STATES MAIL SERVICE
A chauffeur and a collector are carried on the outside of the car, and a distributer within

was possible. These Milwaukee cars are the first motor cars ever built exclusively for the purpose and put into service for Uncle Sam. Their first appearance upon the streets attracted great attention and many other cities, including Chicago, are watching the experiment with a view to its adoption. It will save both time and money to the postoffice.

Railway Accidents in Europe and America

By Slason Thompson

IT is often asked: "Is it necessary for 10,000 lives to be sacrificed and 140,000 people to be injured—the record of a single year—in the operations of railroads in the United States?"

Of course it is not necessary, nor is it, so far as the number of injuries goes, a fact. The highest total of casualties on the railways of the United States yet reported was 95,711 for the year ending June 30, 1905, of which 9,703 were of persons killed and 86,008 injured. The year before there were 10,046 killed and 84,155 injured.

Confining analysis to the killed in 1905, it appears that 4,865 were trespassers and 940 others neither passengers nor employees, making a total of 5,805 persons whose deaths could in no way be affected one way or another by block signals.

In the year ending June, 1906, there were 418 passengers and 3,807 employees killed on American railways. Of these only 182 passengers and 878 employees were reported by the Interstate Commerce Commission as killed "in train accidents," that is to say, in accidents where the block system could have had any protective effect. And of these only 120 passengers and 484 employees were the victims of collisions, the form of accident the block system is designed to avert.

Thus it appears that only six per cent of the deaths from railway accidents in the United States were due to causes which a block system, effective to a standard of perfection, might possibly prevent.

Although the statistics of railway accidents are not anything like as complete in Europe as here, the latest obtainable show the following railway fatalities in one year: Passengers killed, 503; employees, 2,104; other persons, 2,817. In Great Britain in 1905 the killed numbered 1,180 and the injured 18,236. If we had equally comprehensive statistics for the

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THE FITZ-RANDOLPH GATEWAY AT PRINCETON UNIVERSITY
The gift of Augustus Van Wick to commemorate Nathaniel Fitz-Randolph, of Princeton, the donor of the original campus

rest of Europe, the American record would appear far less sanguinary than it is usually represented.

How little we really know of the casualties on foreign railways is indicated by the fact that, while French railway statistics give the total of railway employees killed in 1904 as 226 and the injured as 509, the reports to the labor inspectors under the French law give the following figures of accidents to employees in the transportation industry: Killed, 374; permanently disabled, 513; disabled not exceeding four days, 32,788; results unknown, 655; a total of 34,330.

The reason why there are more casualties on American railways than on European is because the units of risk are greater here, as can be seen in the following comparative table:

	All Europe. (1904)	United States. (1906)
Miles of railway.	189,774	223,026
Passengers carried one mile....	53,165,000,000	25,000,000,000
Tons carried one mile	89,294,000,000	220,000,000,000

The enormous freight traffic is the overshadowing element of peril in railway operation in the United States. It is almost three times greater than that of all Europe. Freight trains figure in three quarters of the prominent collisions reported here.

The distressful accident in which the president of the Southern Railway was killed, occurred on a road protected by the block signals; and three out of the four most shocking railway accidents of the past six months happened where block signals were installed.

I submit that in any discussion of this subject it should be clearly understood that such safety as they have on European roads is through the manual, not the automatic, block system, and that rigid automatic discipline among railway employees will be more conducive to safety than all the safety appliances on the market for legislative adoption.

For the year ending December 31, 1905, sixty-two roads using automatic appara-

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tus reported 405,527,231 movements. Of these, fifty-two roads reported 19,062 failures "to signal clear when block was clear" out of 392,920,291 movements, while twenty-nine roads reported 186 "false clear movements." How many failures or false indications pass unreported or undiscovered can not be ascertained. The vigilance of the human equation frequently prevents accidents where "the apparatus lies."

The conclusion of the International Railway Congress at Washington in 1905, that it was "not prepared to recommend automatic block signaling for general adoption to supersede existing systems, but considered that there were cases where the system may present special advantages," should be given due weight in any discussion of the subject.

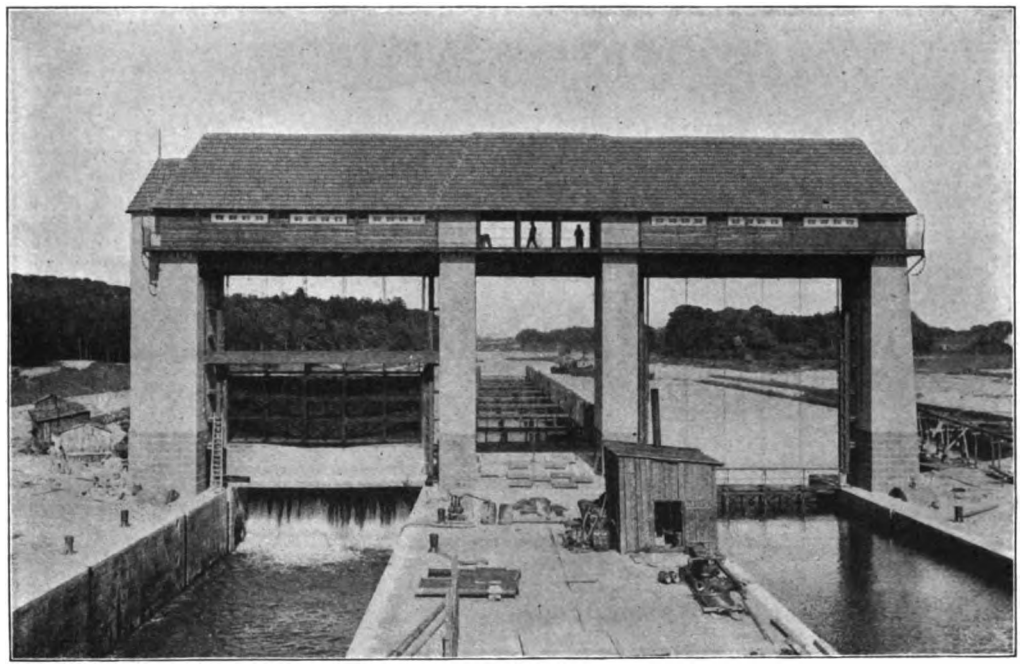
At the close of 1906 nearly one quarter of the total mileage of American railways (51,237 miles out of 223,026) was equipped with automatic or manual block signals, and more than fifty per cent of this is west of Chicago, where the work of installation is going on more rapidly than in the East.

The suburban traffic of American railways, which more nearly resembles the passenger traffic on European roads, is characterized by almost complete immunity from railway accidents.

For the reassurance of American travelers I would like to call attention to the following showing made on 279 of our roads during the year 1906:

Mileage	119,462
Passengers carried	398,484,008
Passengers carried one mile	12,414,934,000
Tons of freight carried	821,095,268
Tons of freight carried one mile	104,934,118,000
Passengers killed in train accidents	None.
Passengers injured in train accidents	2,583

Here was a mileage greater than the combined railway mileage of Great Britain, Germany, France and Russia on which not one passenger was killed in a train accident in a year.



THE UPPER LOCK GATE OF THE TELTOW CANAL, BERLIN
On the left is the needleguard, in the center guidework for the vessel, and on the right a closed lock gate

The Teltow Canal

By William Mayner

THE Teltow Canal near Berlin was constructed during the period from 1901 to 1906. It connects the two rivers flowing through Berlin, the Havel and its tributary, the Spree, the object being to divert the immense river traffic around the German capital. The whole length of

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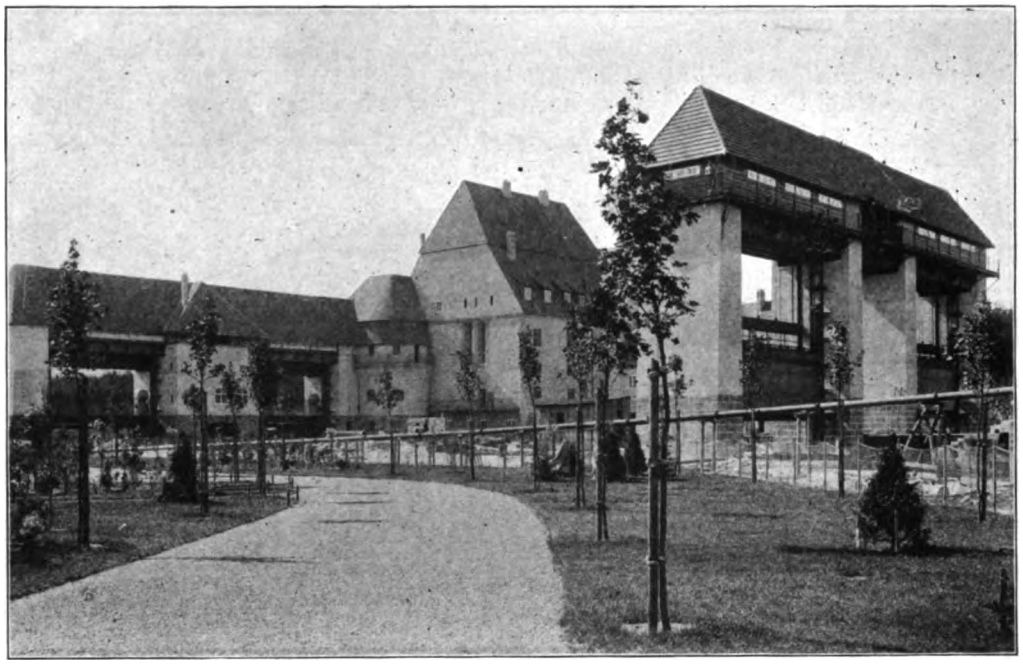
the canal is but twenty-three miles, and the waterway from the Elbe, near the mouth of which lies Germany's most important harbor, Hamburg, to the Oder, is only shortened by sixteen kilometers, but the gain is in the time which it took to get the canal boats through the many locks and crowded river in the city of Berlin.

water of 2.7 meters. In the construction of the lock the latest and most improved system has been employed, and its gates, etc., are all worked by electricity supplied by the canal's own electric works. The towing is also mainly done by electric locomotives with a one-meter gauge and a hauling capacity of one thousand two hundred kilograms at a speed of four km.



THE LOCK GATE PREMISES AT KLEIN-MACHNOW
Viewed from the southern bank of the Teltow Canal

The total expense of the canal, including buildings, harbors, electric works, etc., is approximately $11,500,000, an outlay due to the many difficulties of construction and the high price of the land, but the expenditure is fully justified by the enormous river traffic through Berlin, which amounted in 1905 to nearly twelve million tons.

The canal is constructed for the so-called "western" normal boats, which are 65 meters long, 8.6 meters broad and 1.75 meters deep, with a carrying capacity of six hundred tons. The canal is 20 meters broad at the bottom and from 2 to 2.50 meters deep, with a tow-path running alongside of two meters broad.

There is only one lock with a fall of

Fifty-five bridges had to be built which are at least four meters above the highest water-mark, with a span of from seven to twenty meters.

The canal was built by the County of Teltow and has recently been opened by the German Emperor. The one end of the canal commences from the River Havel near Potsdam and flows alongside the magnificent country-seat of the old Emperor William, whence it passes through some picturesque and romantic parts of the old Mark Brandenburg until, at its other end, it terminates in the busy part of East Berlin in the River Spree.

The estimated annual traffic on the canal is one million five hundred thousand tons.

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BOOKS AND READING

The Real Hearn

By Wallace Rice

Lafcadio Hearn's has long been a figure of mystery. The mysticism in his work, coming at the end to something akin to esoteric Buddhism, was taken as fully interpretative of his character by all except the few privileged to a difficult intimacy. But the man himself was so little known that the first-hand information in Miss Elizabeth Bisland's "The Life and Letters of Lafcadio Hearn" (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., two volumes, $6 net) serves to emphasize former ignorance. An intimate friend through many years, Miss Bisland brings to the task the sympathy and comprehension so essential — never more so than in this case; and the impression remaining after reading the admirable biography, together with the letters it prefaces, is one of surprised esteem.

A modern master of prose style and born with a poet's soul, Hearn entered literature by the devious route of practical printing, proofreading, and extended service as a newspaper reporter. Appealing to few, even while in journalism, he was unusually slow in obtaining recognition elsewhere; and it is cheering to learn that when an appreciative publisher was finally secured and Hearn bound to Japan with a commission, he severed his relations abruptly on learning that the illustrator of his prospective book was to be paid much more than he. The resulting stress forced him to become a teacher of Japanese youth; whereby he eventually grew to be the sublest and best of English-speaking interpreters of life in Japan.

The biography fills a fifth of the two commendable volumes; Hearn's letters the remainder. These are delightful, and introduce to us a fascinating character at its best. Beginning in New Orleans in 1877, they come down to the very month of his death in September, 1904. The reserve associated with his name is unknown in these playful dealings with his closest friends; the self-disclosure as complete as modern convention, rather than idiosyncrasy, permits. Some of them—too few—are illustrated, showing as nothing else could how the boy persisted in the man. His correspondents, as would be surmised, were few and choice. All were lovers of art in one or another of its phases, or of wonders and adventure; and the two great passions of Hearn's life found expression accordingly. Mysticism, other than casual and playful expression of it, is lacking. Its place is filled by specific friendly interest and the general and humane democracy evinced in several of his later books. Toward the close his own story is greatly aided by letters from his wife and a favorite pupil, the former in translation, the latter in quaint and appealing English. Taken together, the letters, with the biography which is partly a transcript from them, admit us to the secrets of a rare personality, and at the same time sustain an earlier and better tradition of correspondence. Certainly they reveal, in Miss Bisland's phrase, "a lovable character, entirely sympathetic and sincere."

History and Sociology

A History of Modern England. By Herbert Paul, in five volumes. Vol. V. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1906, vi, 405. $2.50 net.

The present volume completes Mr. Paul's task. The period, 1885-1895, which includes the second Salisbury ministry and the last of Mr. Gladstone, is almost contemporary history. It is, perhaps, expecting too much of him who writes before the smoke of battle has cleared, to say nothing of those who read, to see more than one side of the conflict. Hence, "Conservatives," in whose memories the stirring scenes depicted are still fresh, will find little to comfort them in Mr. Paul's stricture upon Balfour's administration of Ireland or upon Salisbury's indolence and general nonentity as premier. Yet Mr. Paul is conscious of his bias as a liberal and apparently tries to be tolerant. But his tolerance has hardly got beyond the stage of acknowledging the errors of the leaders of his own party. Nowhere does he deal

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with any sympathetic or comprehensive touch with the men or the motives of the opposite camp. Still this is hopeful. To discover that friends are not always right is the next step to acknowledging that opponents are not always wrong.

In the academic sense, therefore, the book is not history. Its conclusions will not stand the test of the second thought of the generation coming. Nevertheless it will yet furnish a valuable arrangement of materials, an important tabulation of serious events in logical succession that will serve the future historian when, from the vantage ground of the second or third generation, he shall study the political and social struggles of the great century that is now receding. Until that moment arrives, with Morley's "Life of Gladstone," Paul's "History of Modern England" must be recognized as one of the important books upon the last fifty years of English history.

A History of the Inquisition of Spain. By Henry Charles Lea. New York: The Macmillan Company. Vol. II, Pp. xii, 608. $2.50 net.

The first volume of Doctor Lea's monumental work on the history of the Spanish inquisition comprised the first two divisions of the subject, giving the history of the origin of the institution and describing its relations with the state. The second covers in four "books" its jurisdiction, its organization, its resources, and its practice. These captions suggest the nature of the text which is much more interesting than that of the first volume. The descriptions which are given of the inquisitorial process, the manner of arrest and sequestration, the secret prison, the character and modes of the evidence, and the value of confessions serve to afford the reader a good idea of what the institution was able to accomplish. Equally valuable are the details connected with questions of jurisdiction and organization, while the pages which treat of the resources of the inquisition show the sordid side of the Spanish nature and indicate how far reaching the influence of this peculiar institution was.

On the Trail of the Immigrant. By Edward A. Steiner. Fleming H. Revell Company. Pp. 374, $1.50 net.

In all the literature dealing with immigration there is no book quite like this. Professor Steiner is himself an immigrant and since his student days in Germany has traveled back and forth between America and Europe studying the new immigration. He is particularly interested in the Slavs, and his discussion of their life both at home and in America is a real contribution to our knowledge of elements which are going into our national life. Professor Steiner discusses the other immigrants as well, and as most of his information about the Jews and the Greeks and the Italians is gained at first hand, the volume is a thesaurus of the sort of knowledge one wants to know. It does not bristle with statistics. It is good reading and it is permeated by a sane optimism which we commend to all students of immigration. Professor Steiner has no theories to champion, but he believes that the new immigration has in it the elements of a real Americanism. He appreciates that many of the immigrants are in an attitude of revolt from their past and therefore pleads for the proper education and a really statesmanlike treatment of the entire matter. Altogether his book is one of the most stimulating and valuable books of the year.

One has the feeling after reading Miss Jane Addam's "Newer Ideals of Peace" (Macmillan, $1.25 net) that this devoted woman is the only person in the United States who has full grasp of the situation created by the influx of immigrants, and that her wise advice and suggestion must needs fall largely upon deaf ears because her knowledge so far transcends that of the average American. Opinion is largely experience, even with the most carefully educated, and the daily intercourse with the world's poor and helpless which has taught Miss Addams the lesson she seeks to impart to us is so remote from those of us who live conventionally and successfully that her voice is almost lost in the distance. Every page teems with the results of painstaking investigation and study, welded into efficiency by a clear brain and sentiment wholly devoid of sentimentality. But it may be said to show that human needs are betaking themselves to peaceful struggles, rather than those of armies, and that the coming civilization will avail itself of countless forces, all making for righteousness, which we now ignorantly neglect.

Secretary Taft has published his Yale Lectures on "Four Aspects of Civic Duty" (Scribner's, $1 net). These aspects are those seen by the graduate of a university, the judge on the bench, a colonial governor, and a member of the executive division of the federal government. All of these are valuable discussions, but the most specialized is undoubtedly that of the colonial administrator. Because of Secretary Taft's large experience in the Philippines as well as his relations to national administration, his estimate of the duty of America to the Philippines is of real importance.

Religion

The Modern Pulpit. By Lewis O. Brastow, D.D., Professor of Practical Theology, Yale University. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. xxii, 451. $1.50.

Two years ago Dr. Brastow published "Representative Modern Preachers," an admirable discussion of a few prominent men of different schools as representative of the pulpit of the nineteenth century. In the present volume he considers the conditions which have produced the modern pulpit and a very large number of preachers. Dr. Brastow easily reveals himself as sympathetic with liberal tendencies in theology, but not with "the subjective caprice of the new school of biblical critics."

On the basis of various intellectual influences the author discusses the characteristics of modern preaching. The discussion is luminous and practical as the author considers in turn the German pulpit, and then each of the denominational pulpits of England, Scotland and America. He con-

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fines himself to the Protestant bodies, not because the Roman Catholics are without able preachers, but because he declares that the Roman pulpit has no "time spirit." One feels that there is perhaps an undue consideration given to theologians. They may exemplify most markedly the tendencies of thought but they are seldom representative preachers. The discriminating estimate of nearly one hundred leading men in the pulpit of the last two generations is an interesting and valuable contribution.

Ecclesiastes in the Metre of Omar. By William Byron Forbush, 1906. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25 net.

The literary appreciation of the biblical classics is ever to be desired. Mr. Forbush with fine insight discerns the meaning of Ecclesiastes. In an introductory essay he discusses the life problems of this biblical skeptic in comparison with the treatment of the same problem in the Rubáiyát. The similarity between the Hebrew and Persian reflections upon vanity has led him to the task of putting Ecclesiastes into the metre of Omar. He has given in four-score quatrains the essential thoughts of Koheleth. Mr. Forbush writes good verse as a single stanza may indicate:

To eat, to drink—this seems the better part;
To love the shop, the ship, the mall, the mart.
But oh! how bitter in this busy world
To walk with full hand and an empty heart.

A Manual of Theology. By Joseph Agar Beet. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. Pp. xvi, 568.

The Methodist Episcopal Church of Great Britain has decided that Dr. Beet is a heretic. A reading of this book makes one wonder what the orthodoxy of British Methodism must be. The entire volume in method and in general teaching is the theology of Wesley himself. Dr. Beet does show some influence of modern thought in his position relative to the creation of man and on the whole seems to be sympathetic with the doctrine of evolution, but of the influence of the great theological thinkers of the past fifteen or twenty years there is little or no evidence whatsoever. Even his position as regards eschatology is caution itself. The volume has one great excellence. Dr. Beet writes plainly and with intelligibility. You may not agree with his positions, but you will at least know what his positions are.

Frank K. Sanders, formerly of Yale Divinity School, and Professor Henry T. Fowler have published "Outlines of Biblical History and Literature" (Charles Scribner's Sons, $1.25 net). It will make an admirable handbook for a class in biblical literature from the days of Babylon to the close of the Apostolic Age. It contains a selected bibliography which contains good literature of the entire period. As would be expected, however, of a book covering so much ground, it is hardly more than a syllabus and is intended for study rather than for reading. As such, both because of its outlines and on account of its literature, it will be of real service to the teacher of biblical literature.

The literature of biblical criticism has been, of late, very largely either a maze of technicalities or a blur of polemics to the wayfaring man. "The New Appreciation of the Bible," by Willard Chamberlain Selleck, D.D. (The University of Chicago Press, $1.50 net), is that which he can understand, a popular and lucid study of the processes of biblical criticism, an appreciation of its service to religion and a suggestive treatment of the uses of the Bible in the light of the new and deeper value which it has to us as a result of the labors of reverent critics. It is precisely the book for the man or woman who desires to know the significance and the results of modern thought on the Bible. Dr. Selleck's method is logical, his spirit reverent and thoroughly scientific and his form of statement clear and convincing. He calls attention to the changed possibilities in the use of the Bible in the schools, in the Sunday-school and in the home.

Travel

Haskett Smith was one of those interesting men one can find in Palestine if one looks for them. For a number of years he lived in the Holy Land wearing the costume and speaking the language of the natives. He has written a number of volumes on the archæology and geology of Palestine, in which he has set forth some rather interesting though not always very tenable opinions, but in none of them has he done a more characteristic piece of work than in "The Patrollers of Palestine" (Longmans, Green & Co.). It is a really good book on Palestine written in the form of an account of the travels of a typical party of tourists. It does not cover in detail any portion of Palestine except that about Jerusalem, but it does that pretty thoroughly, and incidentally introduces explanations of various Old Testament miracles which one hardly wants to treat seriously.

The beautiful country near the French Riviera and the many interesting places near Italy that can be reached by sea, are easy of access but are probably missed by nine-tenths of the European travelers. Mr. Francis Miltoun in his "Rambles on the Riviera" (Page, $2.50), has a particularly fascinating region to deal with in the cities and towns of Old Provence, the forest and mountain country near the famous Riviera resorts and the coast between Marseilles and Toulon. That it can not remain long in its untraveled security in these days of motor-cars is certain. Mr. Miltoun gives interest to his description of a place with a wealth of literary and historical allusions. He insists that he has not written a "glorified guidebook" but when one finds a book with the good qualities of this one combined with information about travel comforts, maps and hotel-list, it ceases to be an unnecessary weight in one's luggage. The many illustrations by Blanche MacManus are clever and add to the artistic value of the book, but they are hardly more than hasty sketches and are not representative.

Stephen Gwynn has written and Hugh Thomson made pictures for "The Fair Hills of Ireland" (The Macmillan Co., $2 net), as appreciative a work on the sister island as ever came from a Saxon pen. That the writer should have a Welsh name and be an Irishman born doubtless has much to do with his attitude, for his

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ramblings through the historic places of an ancient land and his meetings with their present denizens show a sympathy, not only for the finenesses but the weaknesses of Celtic humanity, which is quite un-English. He knows, too, the Irish poets, old and new, and quotes from them with a pleasure he makes his readers share with him; and he loves the old gods and the modern superstitions in which shadows of them survive.

The pictures in "By Italian Seas" (Scribner's, $2.50 net), by Mr. Peixotto, the artist-author, and the good presswork with wide margins, make the volume one of the handsome books of the season. The pen-and-ink sketches and wash-drawings are carefully executed and have a sunlight quality that suggests some of Joseph Pennell's better work. Mr. Peixotto's journeys took him from the Italian Riviera to the Dalmatian Coast, Sicily, Malta and Tunis. The charm of these picturesque places as recorded by this observing traveler and artist should induce many tourists in Italy to make the trips.

Fiction and Juveniles

It is a delightful setting with illumined pages and full page drawings that McClurg has given George P. Upton's translation of Max Müller's "Memories," originally issued in 1874. The publishers inform us that the present edition is the thirty-third printing of the story.

"The Story of Martin Coe," by Ralph D. Paine (The Outing Co., $1.50), is a story on pretty large lines. It tells how a young man drifted from the navy, plunged into all sorts of excesses, and finally arrived in a little Maine village where he was brought back to his better self by his love of a young girl and the steady care of one of the Mothers of Israel in that small town. The book abounds in honest pathos and just as honest humor. It leaves a good taste in the mouth, and altogether it is a book that shows that Mr. Paine can do something else than write admirable stories of the sea.

"The Slave of Silence" by Fred M. White (Little, Brown & Co., $1.50), is a thriller. There is no question about that. Indian drugs and Burmese assassins, floors that rise and fall, door handles that give men all but deadly electric shocks, telegraphing signals by electric lights, police detectives, villains, all are there. Human ingenuity can do no more.

In "The $30,000 Bequest" (Harper's, $1.75) have been gathered together a number of Mark Twain's later writings, including "A Dog's Tail," "Double Barrel Detective Story," "Eve's Diary," "Adam's Diary," and the story that gives the title to the volume. The volume is one of the uniform edition which every admirer of the author will want some time or other to own.

The Beard family will go down into history as the patron saints of children. "Things Worth Doing and How to Do Them," by Lina Beard and Adelia B. Beard (Scribner's, $2), is the sort of book that girls who want to do things will most certainly enjoy. The book will tell you how to have "A Wild West Show" on the table, how to camp out in the back yard, how to perform Halloween stunts, how to decorate rooms for Christmas and, in fact, nearly anything that any live girl really wants to do.

Blanche Elizabeth Wade has written a charming story in "The Stained Glass Lady," and McClurg & Co. have given it a very beautiful setting with margined pages and illustrations by Miss Ostertag. The book belongs in general in the Lord Fauntleroy class of literature, but is no mere imitation. It is good reading for children and for people who do not outgrow the child mind.

The sixth and last volume of Edward Stratemeyer's "Colonial" series is called "Trail and Trading Post" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., $1.25), and it brings the action almost up to the opening of the American Revolution. The scenes are laid in and about a trading post on the Ohio River, and the action is caused by the efforts of the French and Indians on one side, and the Morris boys and other characters well known from the preceding volumes of the series, to obtain possession of this desirable locality.

A new edition of Miss Marietta Ambrosi's "When I Was a Girl in Italy" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 75 cents) has been issued, rewritten in part and made shorter and more convincing. It is a book worth the effort, simple and strong.

Another of Mrs. Frances Trego Montgomery's well-known stories appears as "Billy Whisker's Friends" (Brewer, Barse & Co., $1), with illustrations in color by Hugo von Hofsten. Billy and his faithful Nannie have lost none of their power to amuse, and the exercises of the Barnyard Social club will make children of any age laugh.

Canadian affairs are interesting the American public more and more, and Miss Mary Catherine Crowley's "In Treaty with Honor" (Little, Brown & Co., $1.50) lets light in upon one of the least considered of the episodes in the history of the Dominion. In 1837 the French in the province of Quebec made a determined, though desultory, stand for independence from British rule. About this historical incident Miss Crowley has woven the strands of a really good romance.

Harold M. Kramer has written "Hearts and the Cross" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., $1.50), thereby adding another to the growing list of Indiana books and authors. The scene is by the banks of the Wabash, where an escaped and pardoned convict preacher works himself back into decent life by the exercise of his talents on the side of righteousness, meeting opposition on many sides and conquering at last by sheer personality and goodness. The argument is vastly complicated and sheers toward melodrama at all times, the tangle at the end being solved by the trite device of twin sisters. The book has interest, but it is a crude performance nevertheless.

"Mr. Pratt," by Joseph C. Lincoln (A. S. Barnes & Co., $1.50), is a highly impossible but delightful account given by a coastwise Yankee of his adventures with two New Yorkers who were seeking the natural life. The book has real humor in it and enough of it to make a book reviewer laugh. Any book which can accomplish that deserves a fourth edition.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Administration.—February 27.—W. S. Shallenberger resigned as second assistant postmaster-general, and Representative James T. McCleary of Minnesota, who is about to retire from Congress, will succeed him.

—March 5.—President Roosevelt selected Regis Henri Post of Bayport, L. I., as governor of Porto Rico to succeed Beekman Winthrop, who is to become an assistant secretary of the treasury.

Cabinet.—February 26.—Leslie Shaw, Secretary of the Treasury, accepted the presidency of the Carnegie Trust Company of New York.

—March 4.—Secretaries Shaw and Hitchcock retired from office and were succeeded by George B. Cortelyou in the treasury and James R. Garfield as Secretary of the Interior.

Casualties.—February 12.—The steamer Larchmont was run down by a schooner off Block Island and 138 persons lost their lives.

—February 16.—Twenty-one persons killed and 147 injured by derailment of the Brewsters express, an electric train on the New York Central railroad, at Bronx Park Bridge.

—February 22.—Thirty-nine persons injured by wreck of the 18-hour New York-to-Chicago Pennsylvania railroad train, west-bound, near Mineral Point, eight miles from Johnstown, Pennsylvania.

Congress.—February 13.—The Senate passed the bill giving the government the right of appeal in certain criminal cases.

—February 16.—The conference report on the immigration bill containing Secretary Root's amendment giving the President authority to place restrictions on the recognition of passports, adopted by the Senate.

—February 18.—Commission appointed to investigate abuses and irregularities in the government printing-office reported to the Senate that a saving of more than $1,500,000 in the cost of printing for the current fiscal year had been secured, and recommended a bill to correct abuses . . . . The House adopted by a vote of 187 to 101 the conference report on the immigration bill.

—February 20.—By a vote of 28 to 42 the Senate refused to adopt the resolution declaring Reed Smoot not entitled to a seat in that body as a senator from Utah. An amendment providing that two-thirds of the senators present must vote to unseat, to make the action effective, was previously passed by a vote of 49 to 22, and a precedent established.

—February 23.—The House passed the Esch bill regulating the hours of railroad employees.

—February 25.—By a vote of 43 to 19 the Senate ratified the Santo Domingo treaty. Senator Beveridge's amendment to the agricultural appropriation bill, requiring the date of canning and inspection to appear on the label of cans containing meat products, was adopted by the Senate.

—February 26.—The Senate passed the Aldrich currency bill authorizing the issuance of $10 gold certificates to the end that $1, $2 and $5 bills, for which there is great demand, may be made to take the place of $10 greenbacks.

—March 1.—The denatured alcohol bill passed the Senate by a vote of 65 to 1. The House passed the ship subsidy bill by a vote of 155 to 144.

Deaths.—February 12.—Frank Wayland Higgins, ex-Governor of the State of New York, aged fifty.

—February 17.—Eri Baker Hulbert, dean of the Divinity School of the University of Chicago, aged sixty-six.

—February 27.—Wendell Phillips Garrison, editor of *The Nation*, aged sixty-six.

—March 1.—Wilhelm Rapp, editor of the *Illinois Staats-Zeitung*, aged eighty.

—March 4.—John W. A. Scott, artist, aged ninety-two. . . . Ada L. Howard, first president of Wellesley College, aged seventy-eight.

—March 9.—John Alexander Dowie, founder of "Zion," the Christian Catholic Apostolic Church, aged sixty.

—March 10.—John Krom Rees, astronomer, aged fifty-one.

Education.—February 18.—By the will of John A. Creighton, $3,000,000 bequeathed to Creighton University, Omaha.

—February 20.—Dr. Harry Pratt Judson elected president of the University of Chicago.

Immigration.—March 7.—Attorney-General Bonaparte rendered a decision that under the new law it will be illegal to pay the passage of immigrants whether payment is made by a state or an individual. . . The government dropped suit against cotton-mill owners at Charlotte, North Carolina, for violation of immigration laws.

Insurance.—February 26.—By a divided vote of four to three the Court of Appeals at Albany, New York, sustained judgment to the effect that George W. Perkins was not guilty of larceny in the use of funds of the New York Life Insurance Company for contributions to the Republican campaign fund in 1904.

—March 7.—George W. Perkins repaid to New York Life Company the $48,000 given to campaign fund with interest.

Iroquois Fire.—March 4.—Trial began at Danville, Illinois, of Will J. Davis, manager of the Iroquois theater, Chicago, at the time of the horror of December 30, 1903, on a charge of manslaughter.

—March 9.—The case against Will J. Davis dismissed on technical grounds.

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Japanese Exclusion.—February 15.—Mayor Schmitz and the members of the San Francisco school board agreed to admit Japanese children to the white public schools if the immigration bill amendment excluding Japanese coolies from the United States were passed. [See under "Congress."]

"COLD FEET."
The Old Style, A. D. 1777. The New, A. D. 1907.
Bradley in the Chicago *Daily News*.

Labor.—February 13.—The federal grand jury at Cleveland, Ohio, returned indictments against eight contracting companies on the charge of violating the eight-hour labor law in connection with government work.

—February 20.—An increase of ten per cent given to all employees in the operating department of the Postal Telegraph Company.

—February 21.—Cornelius P. Shea and ten members of the teamsters' union of Chicago acquitted of the charge of conspiracy in connection with the teamsters' strike against the department stores after a trial lasting 138 days.

Municipal.—March 5.—Abe Ruef, under indictment for graft in San Francisco, defied the law by failing to appear in court when cited.

—March 8.—Abe Ruef, the fugitive boss, captured and brought to court.

Panama Canal.—February 26.—John F. Stevens, chief engineer, resigned. Major George W. Goethals, U. S. A., appointed to succeed him. The Isthmian Canal Commission as reorganized, composed of the following in addition to Goethals as chairman: Majors D. Du B. Gaillard and William L. Sibert, of the engineers' corps; Colonel William C. Gorgas, Medical department, U. S. A.; Senator Joseph C. S. Blackburn of Kentucky; Jackson Smith and Rear-Admiral M. T. Endicott, civil engineer, U. S. N.

—February 28.—John F. Stevens to be temporary chairman of the Isthmian Canal Commission until Major Goethals is familiar with the situation.

Railroads.—February 18.—The Wisconsin railroad commission ordered the Chicago & North-Western, Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul and the Chicago, St. Paul, Minneapolis and Omaha roads to reduce passenger rates from three to 2½ cents a mile within twenty days.

—February 19.—The Mississippi railroad commission ordered the chief railroads of the state to issue interchangeable mileage tickets at 2 cents a mile. The Nebraska State Senate passed a 2-cent passenger fare bill. The Missouri general assembly has passed a similar bill.

—February 21.—Indiana State Legislature passed 2-cent fare bill. The lower house of Nebraska Legislature passed a similar bill and Minnesota railroaded through the house a 2-cent fare bill at one sitting.

—February 25.—E. H. Harriman, before the Interstate Commerce Commission, admitted that $60,000,000 of the capitalization of the Chicago & Alton road is water.

—February 26.—The Minnesota State Senate passed the 2-cent fare bill and the anti-pass bill. The Iowa Senate passed 2-cent fare bill. Governor Hanly of Indiana signed the Bland 2-cent fare act.

—February 27.—Governor Folk of Missouri signed the 2-cent fare bill. The Kansas State Senate and House both passed 2-cent fare bills.

—February 28.—The Nebraska Senate passed a 2-cent fare bill. Governor Cummins of Iowa signed the 2-cent fare bill.

—March 4.—The president and board of directors of the New York Central Railroad Company nominally under arrest and ordered to appear personally or by proxy before the coroner, the jury having rendered a verdict of culpable negligence in regard to the wreck of February 16, when twenty-three persons were killed at Bronx Park Bridge.

—March 5.—Official steps taken by the State of Illinois to attack the validity of $32,000,000 in Alton railroad bonds issued by E. H. Harriman and his associates when they reorganized the Chicago & Alton Railroad.

—March 8.—The North Dakota Legislature passed 2½-cent fare and anti-pass bills. . . . South Dakota Legislature passed bills prohibiting railroad passes and providing for 2½-cent fares.

Rebates.—February 19.—The New York federal grand jury indicted the Great Northern Railway Company on charges of giving $10,000 in rebates on sugar shipments to Lowell M. Palmer, traffic agent of the American Sugar Refining Company. . . . The Ann Arbor Railway Company appeared in the United States court, at Toledo, Ohio, and paid the fine of $15,000 imposed by Judge Taylor, for violation of the interstate commerce laws in granting rebates to the Toledo Ice and Coal Company.

Religion.—March 1.—Suit brought to compel an accounting of the affairs of Mrs. Mary Baker G. Eddy and for the appointment of a receiver for her property and that of the First or "Mother" church of the Christian Scientists.

Saloon License.—February 13.—Circuit Court Judge S. R. Artman of Indiana, rendered a decision that the retail liquor business has no legal standing on the ground that it is dangerous to public health, public morals and public safety

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and is therefore not one of the inherent common-law rights of citizenship.

Senatorial.—February 27.—The lower house of the Texas Legislature, by a vote of 70 to 40, exonerated Senator Bailey from charges brought against him of illegal relations with the Standard Oil Company.

—March 2.—John C. Spooner resigned the United States Senatorship from Wisconsin, desiring to retire from public life.

—March 7.—The bill for nomination of United States senators by popular vote passed by the Missouri Legislature.

—March 8.—The North Dakota Legislature passed a bill providing for nomination of United States senatorial candidates at primaries.

State Dispensary.—February 17.—Governor Martin F. Ansel, of South Carolina, issued an order closing all dispensaries until the county boards are appointed and take charge.

Treasury Robbery.—February 18.—The United States Treasury in Chicago robbed of $173,000.

Trusts.—February 13.—A stringent anti-trust bill passed by the Senate of the Indiana State Legislature by a vote of 41 to 2.

—February 18.—At Savannah, Georgia, the S. P. Sholter Company, the Patterson-Downing, the Standard Naval Stores and the Belgian companies, S. P. Sholter and J. F. C. Myers, comprising the turpentine trust, entered pleas of guilty to a violation of the Sherman anti-trust act, and were fined $5,000 each.

—March 5.—The trial of the Standard Oil Company on a charge of violating the Elkins law begun in Chicago before Judge K. M. Landis.

. . . A decision by Judge Lurton in the United States Appellate Court of Ohio declared illegal the system of special contracts by which proprietary medicines are kept at uniform prices.

—March 7.—Four United States Circuit Court judges decided they had ample jurisdiction in the case of the Standard Oil Company in Missouri and refused to quash the government's suit.

Philippines

Rebellion.—February 13.—The Pulajanes attacked and burned two towns in Occidental Negros and killed six of the constabulary.

Honduras

War.—February 19.—News received that on February 9 the National Congress declared Honduras in a state of siege. On the day following 2,000 men marched to President Bonilla's executive mansion and demanded war against Nicaragua. On February 8 troops attacked the Nicaraguan forces at the frontier, were beaten and compelled to retreat after a fight lasting six hours. Boundary limits are cause of dispute.

—February 20.—Conflicting reports gave victory to each side. Nicaraguan troops entered Honduran territory and captured two towns.

—February 22.—Honduras formally declared war against Nicaragua.

—February 25.—San Marcos de Colon, a well-fortified town defended by the Honduran minister of war at the head of a strong army, captured by Nicaraguan forces.

—March 1.—Nicaraguan forces captured the Honduran towns, Concepcion, Maria and Corpus Christi.

—March 7.—The Nicaraguan forces captured the Honduran position at Tuguare and took many prisoners.

San Salvador

Siege.—March 7.—The national assembly declared the republic in a state of siege.

British Empire

Casualty.—February 17.—A collision of the steamer Heliopolis with the Orianda, near Cardiff, caused the death of fourteen persons.

Deceased Wife's Sister Bill.—February 22.—The House of Commons, by a vote of 263 to 34, passed the second reading of the bill legalizing marriage with a deceased wife's sister, for the eighteenth time.

Municipal Elections.— March 4.— The Liberals and Progressives defeated. The Socialists suffered a marked defeat.

Parliament.—February 12.—King Edward opened Parliament.

—February 27.—The House of Commons, by a vote of 198 to 90, adopted a resolution in favor of the disestablishment and disendowment of the church in both England and Wales — the first time in its history the House has taken such action.

Woman Suffrage.—February 13.—Women suffragists assailed the House of Commons and battled with the police for six hours until they were overpowered and several arrested.

—March 8.—The bill extending the franchise to women killed by debate.

India

Death.—February 17.—Henry Steele Olcott, agriculturist and co-founder with Madame Blavatsky, of the Theosophical Society in America, aged seventy-five.

Jamaica

Governor.—March 4.—The resignation of Governor Swettenham, tentatively made January 23, definitely determined, and accepted by the British government.

Canada

Casualties.—February 26.—The Hochelaga Protestant School in Montreal burned, the principal, Miss Sarah Maxwell, and sixteen children suffocated.

Transvaal

Elections.—February 20.—Results indicated the Boers would have a majority in the Parliament.

Cape Colony

Revolt.—February 20.—Ferrera, leader of the raid last November, and four of his followers, sentenced to death at Kimberley.

France

Casualty.— March 12.— The battleship Iena destroyed in dry dock at Toulon by explosion of powder magazine; 110 killed.

Church and State.—February 19.—By a ma-

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jority of 351 the Chamber of Deputies authorized the government to conclude negotiations for the leasing of churches to parish priests.

Death.— March 11.— Jean Paul Casimir-Perier, ex-president of France, aged fifty-nine.

Spain

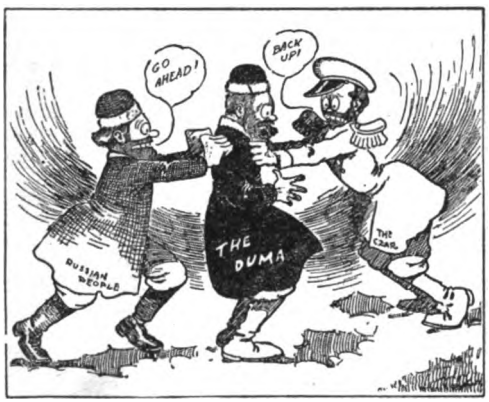
Civil Marriage.—March 1.—A royal order issued annulling the decree published August 28, 1906, which restored the civil marriage formalities and suppressed the obligation on those desiring to marry to declare their religion.

German Empire

Reichstag.—February 19.—The Emperor opened the new reichstag.

—February 20.—Count Udo von Stolberg-Wernigerode elected president of the reichstag. He represents the two conservative parties, the national liberals and the radical groups. The center party have held the presidency for nine years.

—March 8.—The reichstag by a large majority passed the second reading of the supplementary appropriation bill for German Southwest Africa and also appropriation for railway from Kubub to Keetmanshoop.



CAN'T SERVE TWO MASTERS
Jamieson, in the Pittsburg *Dispatch*

Italy

Deaths.—February 15.—Giosue Carducci, poet and professor of Italian literature in the University of Bologna, who received the Nobel prize in 1906, aged seventy.

Holland

Cabinet.—February 12.—Because of the rejection of the war budget by the first chamber of the States-General, the cabinet decided to resign.

Casualty.—February 21.—One hundred and thirty persons lost their lives in the wreck of the Berlin of the Great Eastern Railroad line of England, off the Hook of Holland, in a terrific gale.

Bulgaria

Assassination.—March 11.—M. Petkoff, premier, shot at and killed at Sofia.

Russian Empire

Douma.—February 17.—The name of Professor Maxim Kovolevsky was struck from the electoral lists on the ground that he was not qualified, having been in the capital only two months.

—February 21.—The final elections indicated a decisive victory for the opposition. In Poland the Jews and Socialists were defeated.

—March 5.—The new douma opened. A revolutionary demonstration followed its adjournment, some 40,000 people moving toward the central part of St. Petersburg. It was dispersed by gendarmes and Cossacks. Feodor Golovin, a member of the Constitutional Democrat party, chosen president of the lower house of the douma.

— March 6.—Emperor Nicholas received cordially M. Golovin, president of the lower house.

—March 8.—M. Tchilnokoff, Constitutional Democrat, elected secretary by highest number of votes given any candidate for office. His party in control preserved remarkable orderliness.

Terrorism.—February 22.—Terrorists attacked a postoffice in Warsaw, killed the postmaster, two postal clerks and two soldiers guarding the office, also six bystanders, and robbed the safe of several thousand roubles.

—February 27.—An attempt to wreck a train bearing Grand Duke Nicholas Nicholaievitch, president of the Council of National Defense, discovered in time to stop train.

—March 3.—Alexis Ivanikoff, a notorious terrorist, arrested with a trunk containing thirty-five bombs. The Polytechnic Institute in St. Petersburg searched and twelve infernal machines and a large amount of explosives seized.

—March 7.—A daring hold-up occurred at the University of Moscow. Seven armed men entered the chancellery while the officials were being paid and demanded the money. They seized $20,000, killed a sergeant of police and escaped. . . . The Holy Synod ordered the suppression of a monastery paper of a reactionary character.

Persia

Constitution.—February 11.—The new Shah, learning of the imprisonment of the Governor of Tabriz and the threat to elect a new Shah if the people's demands were not accepted, finally agreed to all the points at issue between him and parliament.

—March 6.—The president of the local assembly at Tabriz and an important chief priest of Rashi were shot down in the streets.

Chinese Empire

Casualty.—February 21.—The West River steamer Hong Hing struck a rock off Hongkong and 130 Chinamen were drowned.

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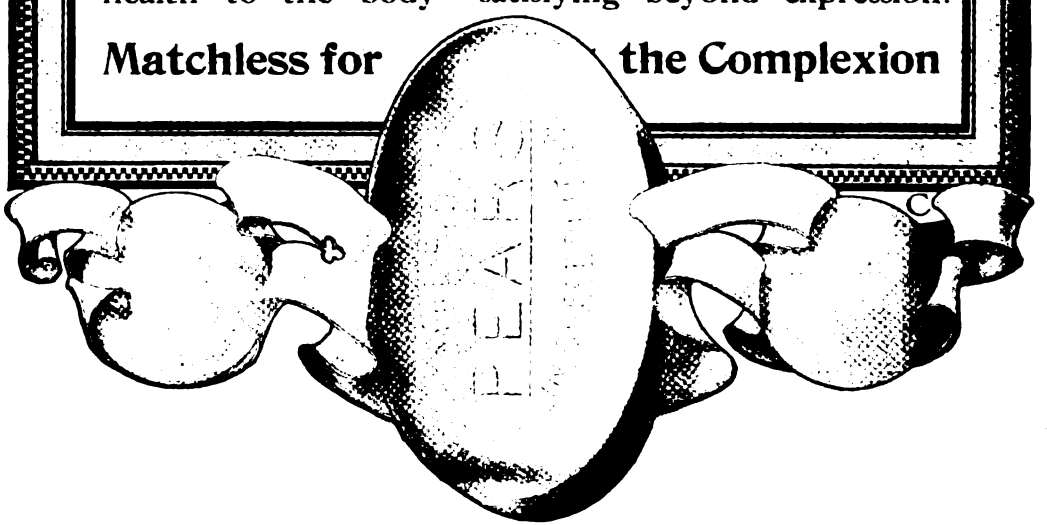

OF ALL SCENTED SOAPS PEARS' OTTO OF ROSE IS THE BEST.

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THE SPIRIT OF THE MONTH

PEACE?

The Railroads again Face their Employees

Packingtown Basks in Law-abiding Cleanliness

The Curious Public is no longer Rent over the Justice of Unwritten Law

America in Peace Convention Assembled Anticipates Conference at The Hague

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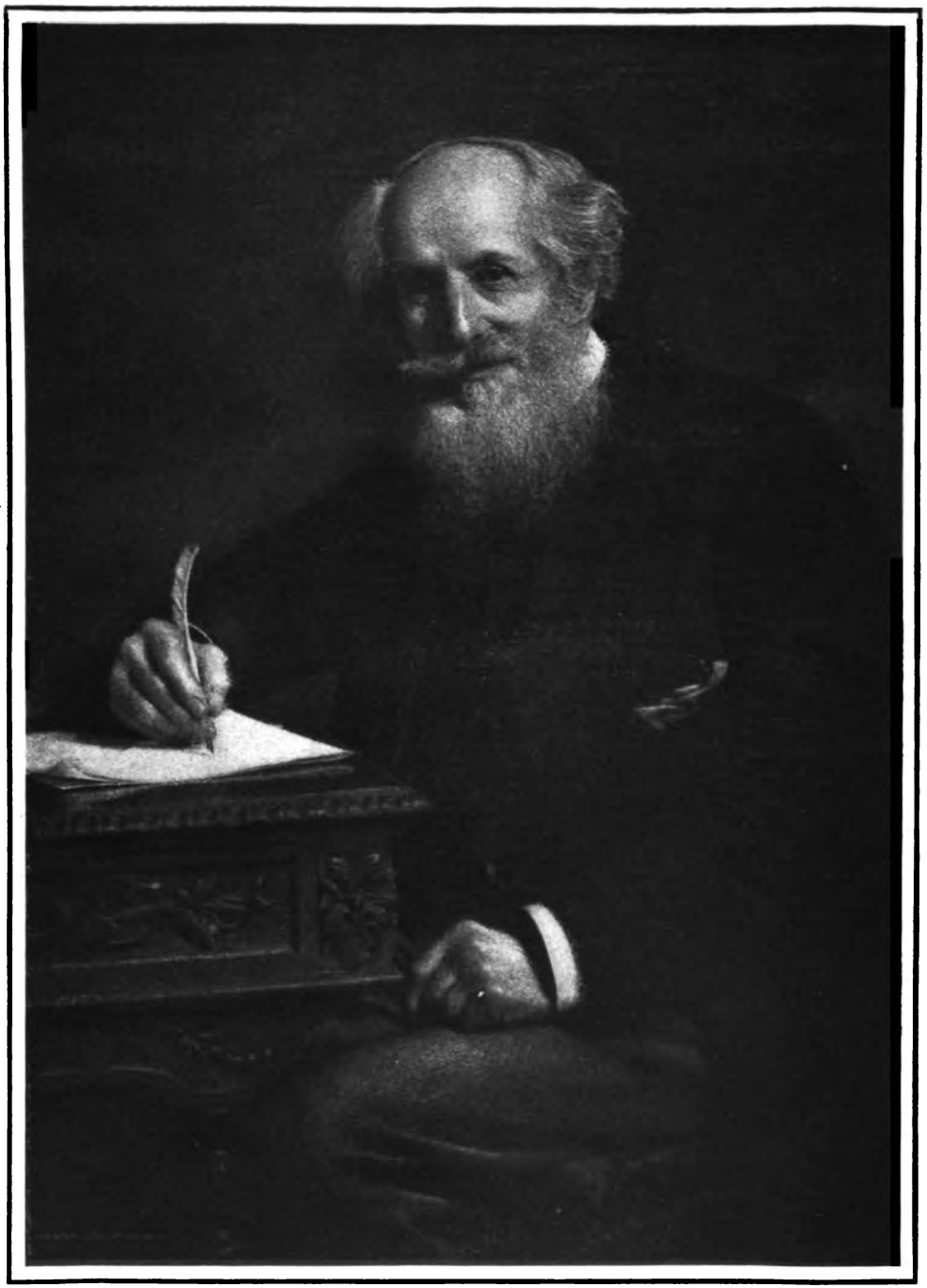

FREDERICK J. FURNIVALL

Mr. Furnivall is probably the most prominent living authority on early English literature. He is a great lover of boating. On his seventy-fifth birthday his friends presented $2,250 to his Early English Text Society, and to him a 3-sculling boat

See the article by F. M. Padelford

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The World To-Day

VOLUME XII MAY, 1907 NUMBER 5

The Luxury of War

WE all have our luxuries. Some of us have our steam yachts, some our automobiles, some our books, and some of us our bad habits; but luxuries we must have, cost what they will.

So, too, with the world. It has its luxury—war.

* * *

Of course all good Christians believe that men ought not to fight, but so do we believe that men ought not to spend money for things they can not afford. But there are always extenuating circumstances, and it is always easier to run in debt for luxuries than for necessities.

In the days of the Roman Empire a standing army of 120,000 men kept order in the country surrounding the Mediterranean. That, of course, was before we achieved our present high civilization. In these same countries to-day there are probably two million men under arms and as many more in Germany and Russia.

But Rome was relatively poor.

All of these men have been taken from industry at the age when they ought to be learning their trades. They have to be supported by the state and have to live off of other people. But an army is a luxury which civilization enjoys. All the world, and especially every woman, loves a uniform.

Why, then, should Peace Conferences and Hague Conferences try to make us more economical? Have not our reformers learned that as long

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as a man or a nation's credit is good he can afford all the luxuries he can borrow money to pay for?

* * *

And then there is the science of war. If one man kills another to avenge a personal wrong, it is, of course, plain murder; but when he and a hundred thousand other people unite to kill another one hundred thousand and one people for a national insult it is military science.

Why should Peace Conferences stand in the way of the development of science?

A modern battleship will cost enough to endow a couple of small colleges. It will be sent to the junk heap in twenty years if it does not go to the bottom before.

But education is only a necessity. The battleship is a luxury.

It costs enough to support a nation's military establishment to give old-age pensions, to build hospitals, libraries, art museums, parks and raise the salaries of mail carriers. But a nation gladly sacrifices these secondary goods that it may afford the luxury of being ready to kill a few hundred thousand of its neighbors and develop field hospitals for itself.

* * *

One of these days we shall come to our economic senses if not to our moral senses. At that time we shall hear no more silly talk about the greatness of war and of the patriot who must kill somebody in order to be patriotic. The world will do without cannons to smash people to pieces, rifles to bore holes in their bones, bayonets to stick into their bodies, and mines to blow up their transports, and will use the money that these luxuries cost for sensible purposes.

When that time comes we may not have as many processions of soldiers, but we shall not be squandering our money on a luxury that reduces wealth, breeds social inequalities and terrorizes neighbors with a fear of misery.

But it takes nations, just as it takes plain folks, a long time to grow sensible.

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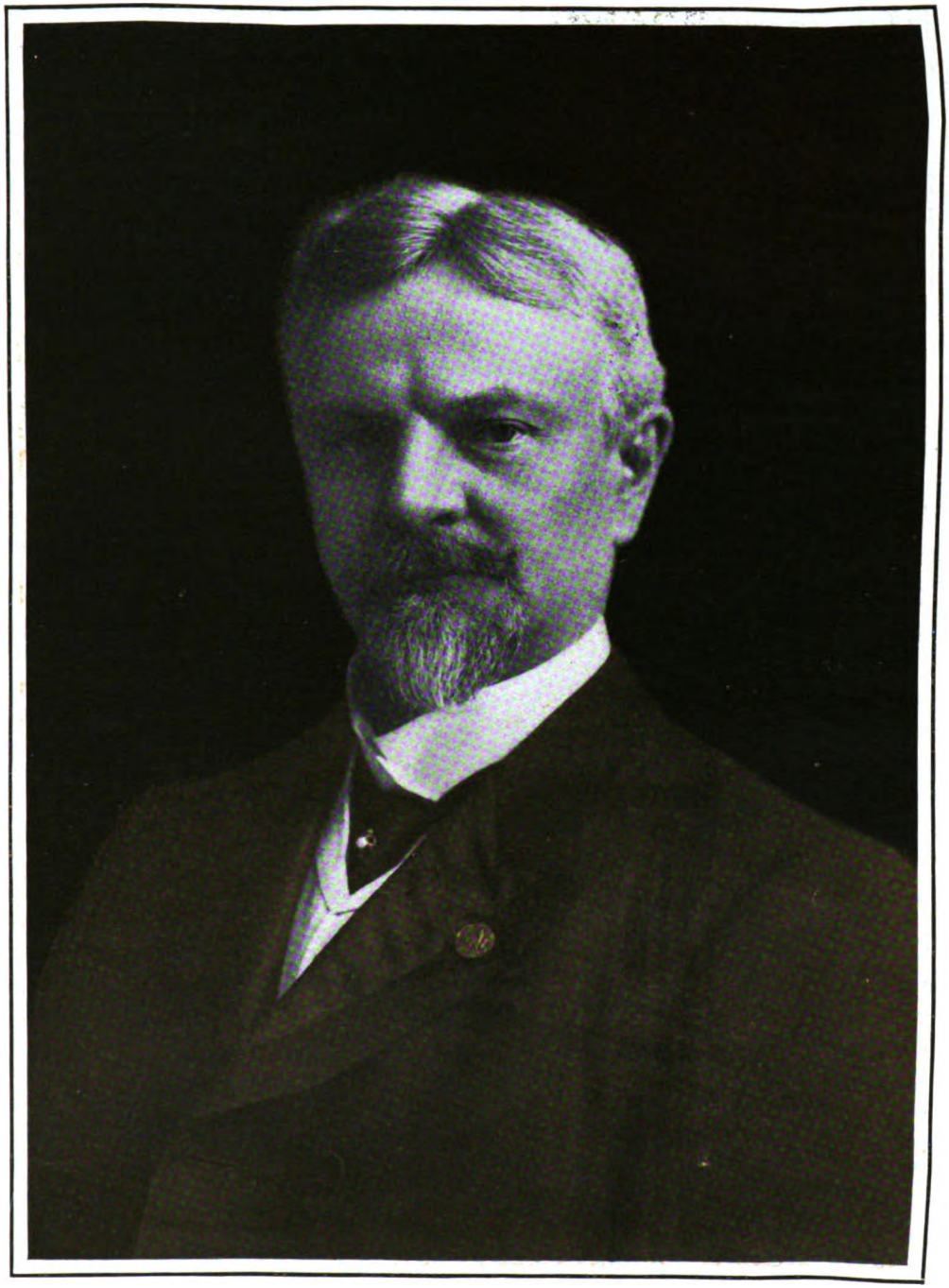

RICHARD BARTHOLDT

Former President of the Interparliamentary Union for Promotion of International Arbitration and head of its American group He is also author of two of the most important resolutions to come before the Hague Conference

See the article by Jewell H. Aubere

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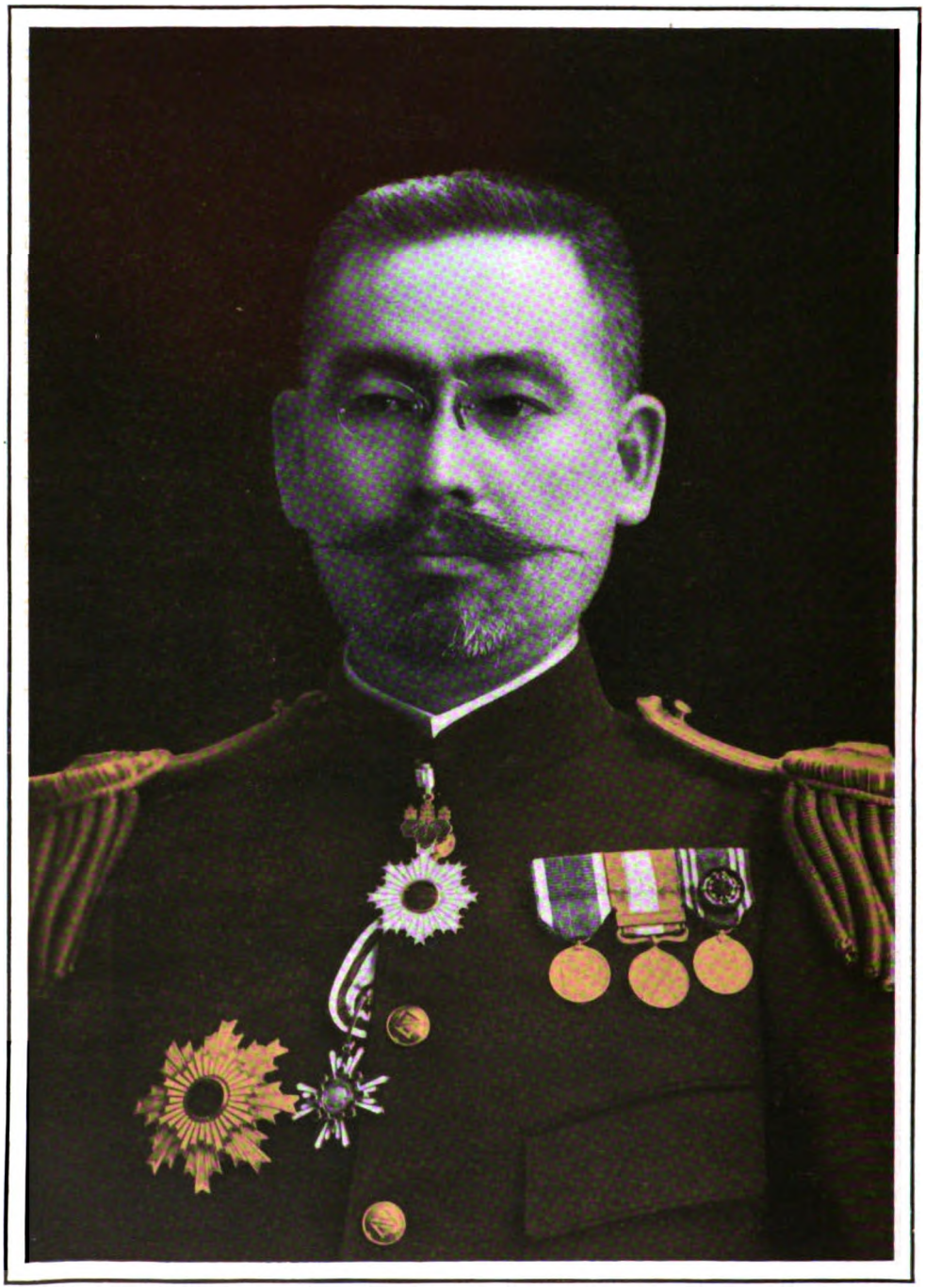

BARON SHIMPEI GOTO

Ex-Civil Governor of Formosa, President of the South Manchurian Railway Company, Adviser to the Japanese Administration at Dalny and to the Colonial Government of Formosa

See the article by K. K. Kawakami

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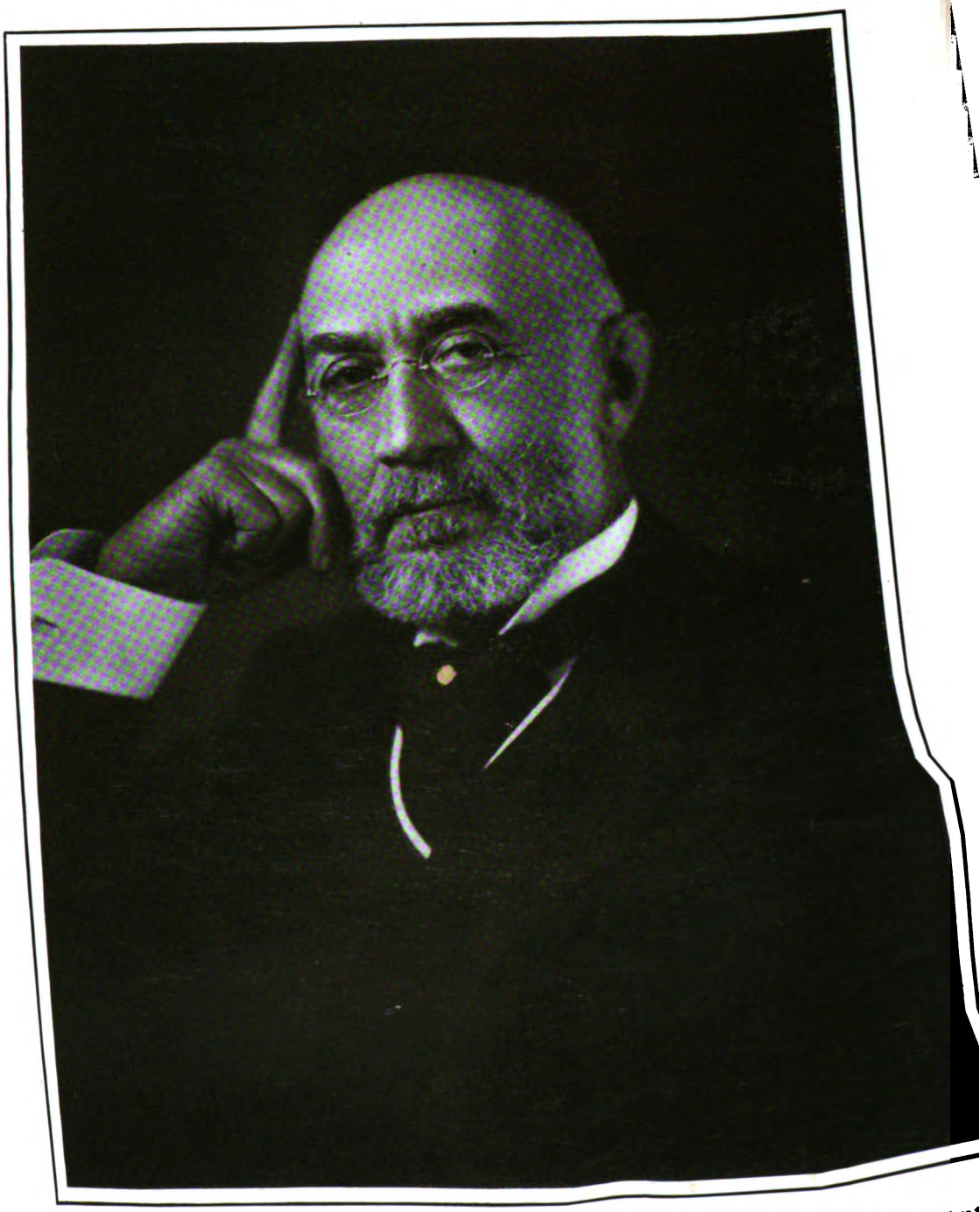

ISIDOR STRAUS

President of the Educational Alliance. Mr. Straus is one of the most prominent Hebrew philanthropist

See page

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EVANGELINE BOOTH

Head of the Salvation Army in the United States. Her costume is that she wore when as a flower girl she investigated the condition of the London poor

See the article by Hugh C. Weir

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Foreign Affairs

The Isle of Pines

The debated question of the ownership of the Isle of Pines has been definitely settled by a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States. That court unanimously concurs in the opinion delivered by Chief Justice Fuller to the effect that the island is now and always has been an integral part of Cuba, so far as jurisdiction is concerned, and that it does not in any way belong to the United States. In the treaty made with Spain after the war with that country, no specific mention was made of the Isle of Pines. Hence many persons believed it to be included in the provision: "Spain cedes to the United States the island of Porto Rico and other islands under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies." Because of doubt on this point, a distinct provision was inserted in the Platt amendment that the question of ownership should be left open for future decision by the two governments. Many Americans have bought property in the Isle of Pines under the conviction that it was permanently under the protection and control of the United States government. Several hundred other Americans are resident there. Henceforth they must conform to the laws of the Cuban courts. If difficulties arise, although they possess the right of protest, there can be no appeal from the authority of the Cuban government.

The Central American Conflict

So contradictory are reports of the conflict between Honduras and Nicaragua that the exact status of affairs is not easy to determine. It is evident, however, that altogether Nicaragua has had the best of it. Choluteca, Honduras, a strongly fortified city held by the Honduran and Salvadorean troops, was captured and President Bonilla fled. The capital of Honduras, Tegucigalpa, was next attacked and soon fell into the hands of the Nicaraguans. It was reported that the Bonilla government no longer existed and that Philip R. Brown, secretary of the American Legation, assumed charge, and with the aid of the consuls, preserved order. Trujillo, the chief port of Honduras, was also taken by the Nicaraguans, and other towns on the northern coast of Honduras. United States gunboats have been sent to Trujillo and Ceiba to guard American interests. Later information states that Honduran and Salvadorean troops recaptured Trujillo, and took as prisoners two hundred Nicaraguan soldiers with considerable war supplies. President Bonilla has surrendered Ama-

YOU FIGHT JUST LIKE AMERICAN PUGILISTS
Sanglier in the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*

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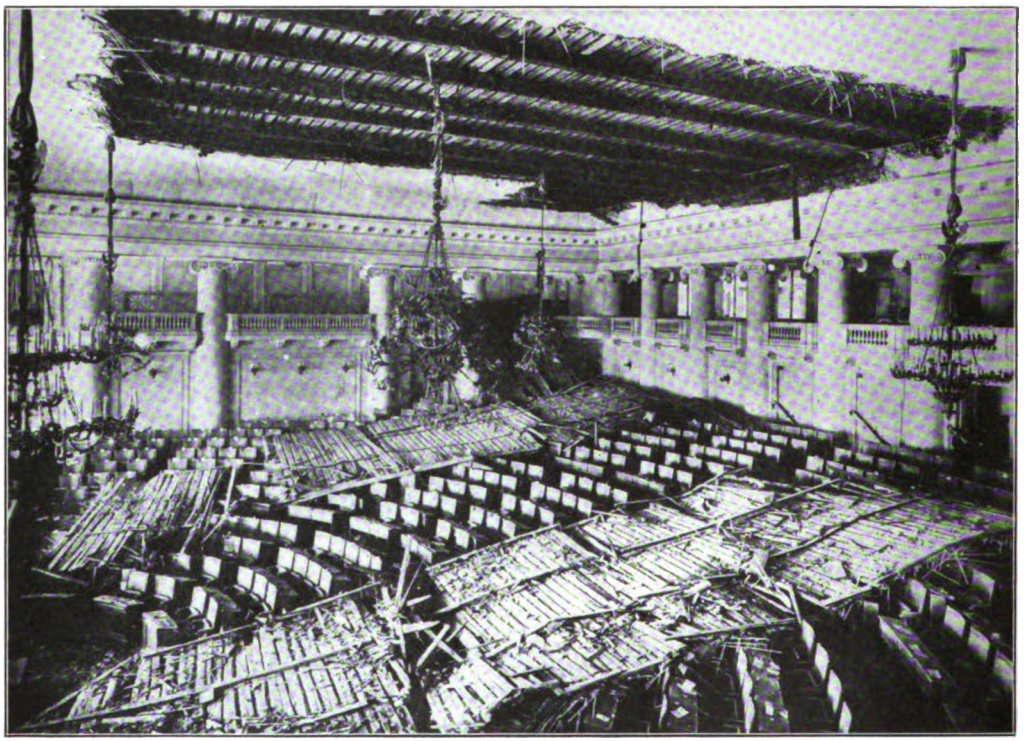
pala, where he took refuge after Tegucipala was taken, and embarked on board the American cruiser, Chicago, whose commander arranged the terms of capitulation. The war is therefore over and a provisional government for Honduras has been established.

The Russian Government

The proceedings following the opening of the douma indicate an advance in the efficiency of that body. The lower house has evinced a power of self-control and a spirit of moderation which augurs well for its continued existence and influence. On the other hand, the Czar and his ministers have been wise enough to recognize the growing power of the people, and for the first time have submitted to their representatives the ministerial program of legislation. Premier Stolypin declared the intention of the government to establish local self-government and to reform the zemstvos, to give the right of habeas corpus, do away with the system of exile by administrative process and institute a single form of martial law, freedom of speech, of the press, and of religious belief and worship, popular education and agrarian reforms. The program was effectively set forth and sounds well. It was received in silence, for it was felt that all its provisions were liable to nullification by the establishment of martial law, or something resembling it, but Prince Zeretelli of the Caucasus, representing the Socialists, promptly moved its rejection, and demanded the overthrow of the present government. The lower house, however, did not allow itself to be carried away by either speaker. Prince Dolgorouki moved that the house proceed with the order of the day, and was supported by the Constitutional Democrats, the Group of Toil and the Nationalists, so that no radical action ensued. The wise temper of the majority was further shown in its refusal the next day to appoint a famine commission independently of the government, to distribute relief, investigate the famine



THE MEETING-PLACE OF THE DOUMA AFTER THE FALL OF THE CEILING

Many of the members might have been killed if the douma had been in session at the time of the accident

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FAMINE-STRICKEN CHINESE PEASANTS REACHING FOR TICKETS ENTITLING THEM TO BUY CHEAP RICE

The photograph was taken outside the magistrate's yamen at Suchien, on the Grand Canal, within the famine area. At Yangchow there is a famine camp of 80,000 persons, of whom a thousand died in a single night of cold and starvation. At Nanking 100,000 people are encamped, and 30,000 at Chingkiang. The people are bearing the sufferings with wonderful restraint, and have made no attempt to loot the food from shops in the cities. Altogether there are said to be 10,000,000 people famine-stricken in the Chinese Empire

relief of the last two years and prosecute officials found guilty of graft in connection therewith. The proposal was voted down by a vote of 325 to 149, and instead, a commission of thirty-three was appointed simply to supervise the administration of the relief fund, which commission was accepted by Premier Stolypin in behalf of the government, which, he said, would coöperate with it in every way possible.

The Real Status

It is not possible for the Russian people to feel elated over the governmental program, for they have learned by experience that glittering promises do not constitute real reform. So long as the fiat of the Czar or the whim of his ministers can suspend or annul any law promulgated, where is their security? Mr. Alexis Aladyin, the Russian peasant leader now in this country seeking with his compatriot, Tschaikofsky, to enlist American sympathy and support, has called attention to the incongruity between the bestowal of the right of habeas corpus and the simultaneous exercise of the law of court-martial. The number of political victims of the Czar, during the last two years, has recently been published in a German newspaper. The minimum calculation is stated to be 14,654 killed and 18,052 wounded between January, 1905, and February, 1906. Official returns place the total during the revolutionary movement at 26,000 dead and 31,000 wounded. Of these, 1,252 were condemned to death at drumhead court-martial, 934 being executed, and 275 were sentenced to life imprisonment with hard labor, in the year 1906 alone. One hundred and eighty-six were sent to Siberia in the same period. Civil rights and free-

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dom of speech are too far away from the Russian people at present for them to become enthusiastic over any promises of the Czar.

Germanic Control of the Baltic

That Germany has serious designs of preëmpting the Baltic Sea for her own special benefit is a subject of much anxiety in Great Britain and Europe. Denmark and Germany have become closely allied in a commercial way, and German influence with both Denmark and Norway is said to be on the increase. It is reported that the outcome is the neutralization of the Danish straits connecting the North Sea and the Baltic, and the consequent attempt to close the Baltic Sea to foreign fleets.

Revolt in Roumania

What at first were believed to be simply anti-Semitic riots in Moldavia, the northern province of Roumania, have proved to be a revolt against the great farming trust which has leased half the cultivable land in that province. Three Jewish families are the absentee landlords and the men in charge, of the same race, have rented the land at exorbitant rates. Consequently the racial antagonism has been intensified by agrarian oppression, until the whole country has been aflame. Thousands of peasants in organized bands have pillaged some four hundred estates, attacked and burned over forty towns and villages. Many Jewish families have been killed, others have suffered outrages. It is estimated that 10,000 Jews are now homeless and that 8,000 have fled across the frontier into Austria. It was not until the revolt had gained considerable headway that the government permitted the troops to use force and fire upon the rioters. Finally, however, all the reservists were called to the colors and there were many conflicts in which peasants lost their lives. Bucharest, the capital, was threatened and the rioting extended into Wallachia. Both in Bucharest and Jassy the prefects ordered all shops shut as a measure of precaution.

CHORUS: "PRETTY BIRDIE"
Sanglier, in St. Paul *Pioneer Press*

Conciliatory Action

Dissension in the Conservative cabinet at the time of the breaking out of the trouble in Moldavia and the formation of a new Liberal ministry under the leadership of M. Sturdza, hindered governmental control of the situation. But on March 27 a proclamation by King Carlos announced measures for the relief of the peasantry, and the Chamber of Deputies adopted bills providing for the abolition of certain taxes and other methods of ameliorating the condition of the peasants, particularly by restricting the powers of absentee landowners and large tenants. Both houses of Parliament unanimously authorized the cabinet to declare a state of siege wherever necessary. The official press places the damage done by the agrarian disorders at $6,000,000.

Matters in France

There has been some excitement in Paris and Rome over the appointment of a commission to examine and make public the documents seized in the apartments of Mgr. Montagnini, the Vatican representative who was expelled from France because of political interference. There have been revelations of intrigues, but the exposé does not seem to have changed the general tenor of feeling as to

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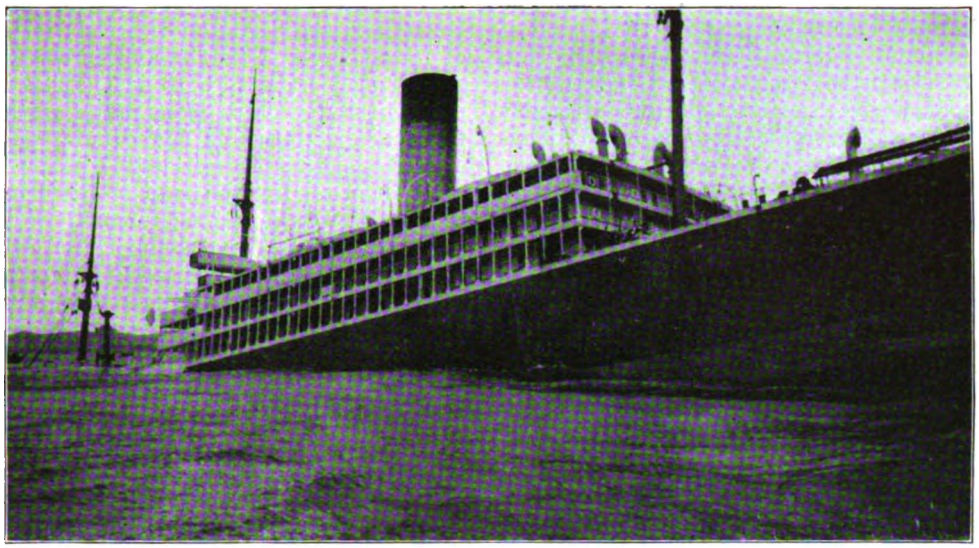

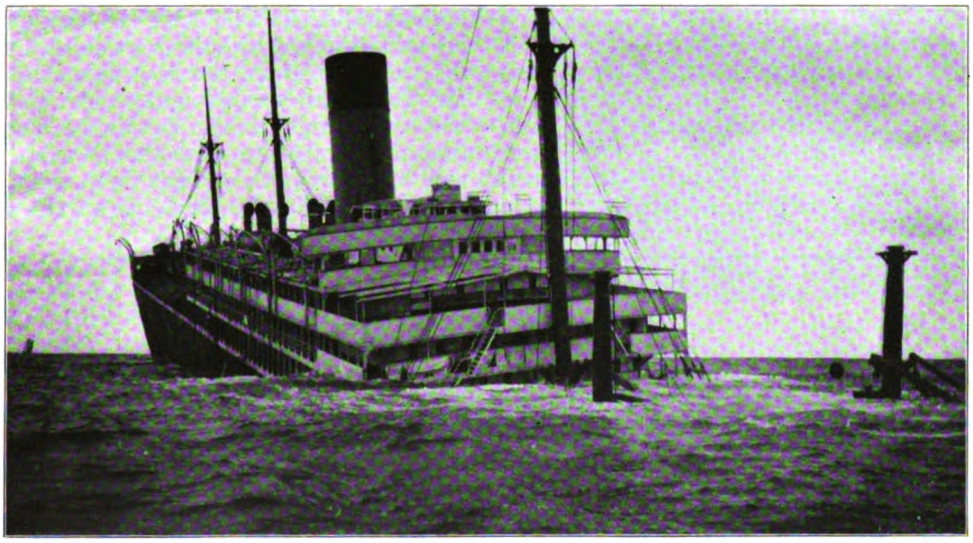

THE WRECK OF THE DAKOTA

The Great Northern steamship Dakota was wrecked near Shirahama, not far from the entrance to Tokyo Bay, Japan, a few hours from Yokohama, on the afternoon of Sunday, March 3. After a rough voyage of head winds and bad weather, this last day of the voyage, as they steamed down the Japan coast, was calm, clear and delightful. The passengers were packing their trunks preparatory to landing in Yokohama when the ship struck a sunken ledge. The ship was within a mile of the shore instead of about five miles off, the usual route, the captain was on the bridge at the time, and the sea was calm. The fore part of the ship sank under water very early, but the stern remained upon the ledge. All the crew and officers left the vessel, and before the shore was reached the lights of looters could be seen moving over the wreck. The ship had scarcely sunk before the boats of the fishermen were about the wreck. They had seen the ship coming so near the shore that they thought there was some disaster and that they were trying to beach her. Passengers saved only what they could carry in their hands, but within the next twenty-four hours they had the experience of having their own baggage offered them for sale by those who had taken it from the ship as loot. Fortunately no lives were lost. The ship was well insured, and the injuries are so great that she has been given up by the owners.

The Dakota and her sister ship, the Minnesota, are the two largest ships on the Pacific, and in fact at the time of their building they were the largest ships ever constructed. The Dakota was a ship of 25,000 tons displacement, and is the largest vessel ever wrecked.

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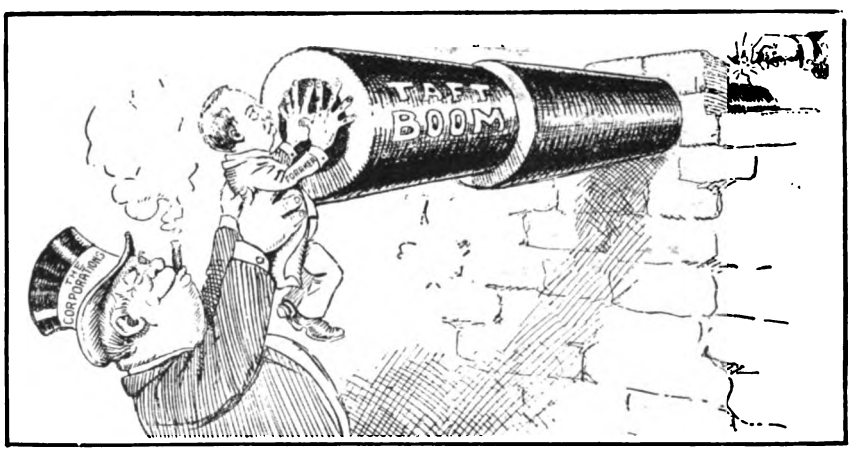
the separation of Church and State. The Chamber of Deputies voted the honor of a national funeral to M. Pierre Berthelot, the scientist to whose labors are due the discoveries of acetylene gas and smokeless powder, and other important contributions to chemical knowledge. The income tax scheme about which there has been considerable discussion, is receiving so much modification that its survival is doubtful. Proportional representation is now on the carpet, a bill providing for that and other electoral changes having been introduced into the Chamber of Deputies in accordance with the promise of Premier Clemenceau on accession to office. It is proposed that deputies henceforth shall hold office for six instead of four years and that their number shall be reduced from 591 to 490. The bill plans to give each voter as many votes as there are deputies in his district to be elected, making it optional whether he casts them all for one man or distributes them. Electoral districts would be entitled to return one deputy for every 25,000 voters, and one in addition for any surplus of over 5,000. Bye-elections would be eliminated by filling vacancies with the unsuccessful candidates who received the largest number of votes in the district to be represented.

The Nation

Harriman and the President

The peace which threatened to settle down upon American politics was at least given a touch of uncertainty by the publication of a private letter of Mr. Harriman's in which he stated that President Roosevelt in 1904 had asked him to raise money for the Republican campaign. President Roosevelt seems to have been at one time *persona grata* to Mr. Harriman, but his activity in endeavoring to enforce elemental regard for law, as well as his alleged radical tendencies, to say nothing of the work of the Interstate Commerce Commission, seems to have somewhat cost him Mr. Harriman's favor. So again Mr. Roosevelt has been obliged to make rigorous denial of a published statement. He does it as vigorously in Mr. Harriman's case as in that of the other gentlemen who have declared that he said things which he says he did not say. As it stands, the case seems to set Mr. Harriman's word against Mr. Roosevelt's, although it can hardly be denied that it is not quite clear that Mr. Harriman's general charge has been met by the President. At best, however, Mr. Harriman shows himself a bad strategist. His attacks on President Roosevelt are not likely to affect the investigation of the land policy of the Union Pacific or the action of the various state legislatures relative to the railroads.



SENATOR FORAKER OF OHIO WILL TRY TO STOP THE TAFT BOOM

Morris in Spokane *Spokesman-Review*

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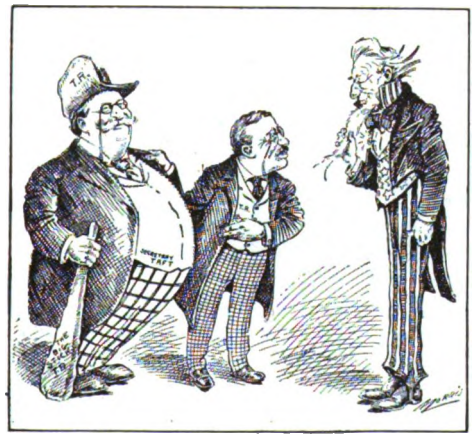
Jockeying for Presidential Nomination

There may be another effect spring from this attack of Mr. Harriman's; the people of the country may bring pressure to bear upon the President until he judges it advisable to stand for another nomination. There are those who think that President Roosevelt would like nothing better than to have such a need thrust upon him. In the case of any other man it would be difficult not to interpret in this way a number of elements in the recent agitation; but it is hard to readjust ourselves to this view of the President. At the same time, there will be a strong demand for his candidacy if the coming year shows any tendency on the part of the Republican party to retreat from the position which it has taken under him. There seem to be no two opinions as to the significance of the present political struggle among the Ohio Republicans. Ohio wants to have the next President of the United States and Senator Foraker means to be Ohio's candidate if possible. That means an anti-Roosevelt movement beyond a peradventure. On March 26 Senator Foraker served notice that he would request the Republican State Central Committee to issue a call for a Republican State Convention, for the purpose not only of nominating candidates for state offices, but also to determine the preference of the Republicans of Ohio as to the candidates for the United States Senate and the presidency. Secretary Taft was at that time en route to Panama. His brother, Charles P. Taft, of Cincinnati, took up the Foraker challenge and through his newspaper declared that if the Ohio Republicans chose Taft or Foraker, the man not chosen was eliminated from the political situation. The people at large have not shown any large interest in this jockeying for place in the presidential race. They are, however, not indifferent, as will appear plainly when the race is fairly on. In the meantime we have Mr. John Temple Graves, with something like the approval of Mr. Bryan, proposing that Roosevelt be nominated by the Democrats. That the suggestion should be treated seriously is

SENATOR JOSEPH B. FORAKER, WITH HIS WIFE AND YOUNGEST SON

The Senator who has recently figured against the President in the Brownsville, Texas, affair, and who is now opposing Secretary of War Taft in Ohio for the Republican nomination for President. Just which one will be the choice from Ohio will be decided at a primary election to be held soon



President Roosevelt—Uncle, can't you take him for my third term?

Morris in the *Spokesman-Review*, Spokane

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another evidence that the people at large want Roosevelt as the administrator of Rooseveltism.

CHARLES P. TAFT AND BELLAMY STORER

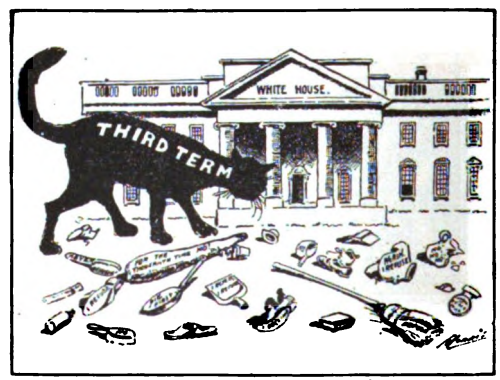
Charles P. Taft is the brother of Secretary Taft, and the owner and editor of the Cincinnati *Times-Star*. He officially announced the Secretary a candidate for the Republican nomination for President and thereby started the political feud with Senator Foraker, who also aspires to that office. Mr. Storer is the lately deposed Ambassador to Austria

The Arbitration and Peace Congress

As we go to press the National Arbitration and Peace Congress is meeting in Carnegie Hall, New York, under the presidency of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. It is expected to have great weight in influencing the establishment of a permanent court of international law at The Hague. The important propositions being considered at this congress are referred to in an article on page 505 of this issue of THE WORLD TO-DAY. Among the speakers from abroad are Mr. W. T. Stead, Barons D'Estournelles De Constant and Descamps from France and Belgium, "Maarten Maartens," Vice-Chancellor Roberts of Cambridge University and Earl Grey, Governor-General of Canada. The Emperor of Germany sends a personal representative, Lieutenant-General Alfred von Loewenfeld, and other German officials of high rank. There are several representatives of Great Britain: Sir Robert Cranston, ex-Lord-Provost of Edinburgh, Dr. John Rhys, principal of Jesus College, Oxford University, etc. Elihu Root, Vice-President Fairbanks, Mr. James Bryce, Miss Jane Addams, Presidents Eliot, Schurman, James and Woodrow Wilson, and possibly President Roosevelt, are on the program for addresses on various topics connected with the peace movement.

Oklahoma's Constitution

The convention which drew up the remarkable constitution proposed for the acceptance of the people of Oklahoma, was itself remarkable. An Indian was elected president and it was controlled by Indians, men educated in eastern colleges who have learned how to "do" things, commercially and otherwise. Undoubtedly this is the first occasion in which the red men have taken such a position of leadership. The provisions of the constitution include the initiative and referendum, partial woman suffrage, direct nomination of all officers by the people and prohibition of succession in state offices. The sale or introduction of liquor into the state is prohibited. Railroads and corporations must meet drastic



AND THE CAT CAME BACK
Morris in Spokane *Spokesman-Review*

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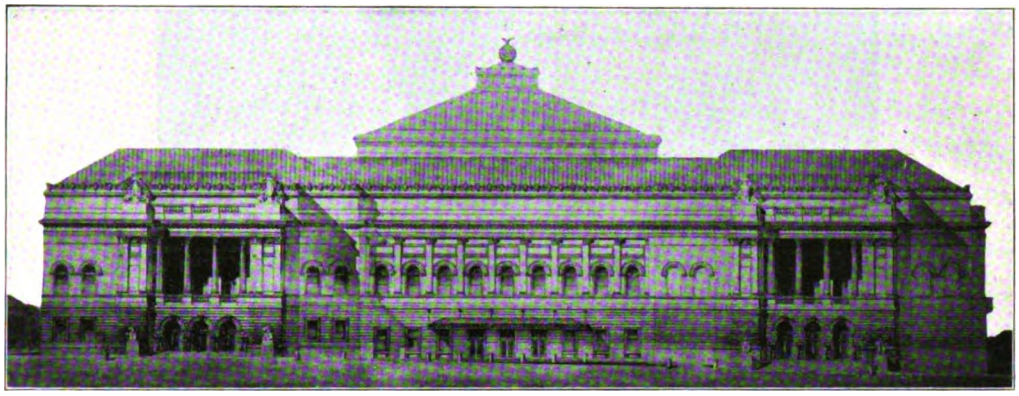
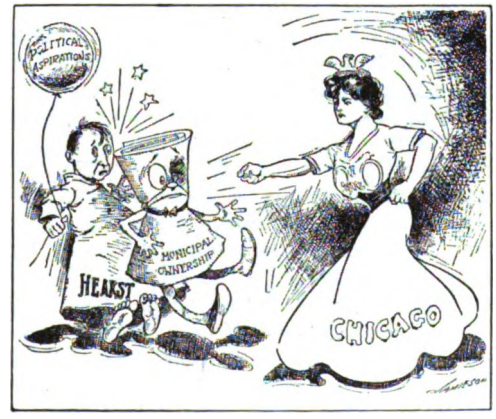
regulations. The former must make a two-cent fare and they are forbidden ownership in any productive agency of a natural commodity. Corporations may not own more land than is absolutely necessary in their business or deal in real estate outside of incorporated cities. The issuance of watered stock is forbidden and the books of all corporations must always be open for inspection. Provision is made for state ownership of the segregated mineral lands in Indian Territory. A compulsory and separate school system is to be established and commissions appointed to deal with charities, labor and arbitration, insurance, railroads, agriculture, gas, coal, oil and mines. The term negro is defined, and the marriage of negroes with whites prohibited. The people are to vote on this proposed constitution on August 6 next. As the ratio of one hundred Democrats to twelve Republicans, which existed in the convention originating the constitution, prevails approximately throughout the new state, its acceptance is not seriously questioned.

The Dedication of the Carnegie Institute

The dedication of the Carnegie Institute was held on April 11 to 13. The gathering of distinguished persons was large, as befitted so important an event. The new building covers four acres, with sixteen acres of floor space. Its library stack has a capacity of 800,000 volumes, and the entire library for 1,500,000. It is one of the most beautifully decorated buildings in the world; the marble alone cost three-quarters of a million. It is a place where the arts and sciences may have a worthy home together. The present building, it is interesting to remember, is the completion of the Carnegie Institute which was dedicated in 1895. The present building has been endowed with $2,000,000 by Mr. Carnegie, and the building, as at present completed, cost $6,000,000. This is in addition to the $3,500,000 which Mr. Carnegie has also given to the technical school. Another recent large philanthropic gift is that of Mrs. Russell Sage, who has donated $10,000,000 for the establishment of the Sage Foundation, to be devoted to the improvement of social and living conditions in the United States. The trustees appointed by Mrs. Sage to



THE NEW BUILDING OF CARNEGIE INSTITUTE, PITTSBURG
Dedicated April 11-13. It cost $6,000,000, given by Mr. Carnegie. It is built of marble, which alone cost three-quarters of a million, and covers four acres, with sixteen acres of floor space



BUMPED!
Jamieson in the Pittsburg *Dispatch*

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FRED A. BUSSE
Recently elected Mayor of Chicago

administer this trust are Robert W. de Forest, Cleveland H. Dodge, Daniel C. Gilman, John M. Glenn, Miss Helen Gould, Mrs. William B. Rice and Miss Louise Lee Schuyler.

Chicago Repudiates Dunne

Chicago has at last reached terra firma, as far as the traction situation is concerned. At the election of April 2 the city voted to accept the proposed ordinances which will enable the street car companies to proceed to the rejuvenation of their municipal properties. The city becomes a sort of partner in the traction business, and is likely to reap considerable good from the workings of the companies. When one recalls that two years ago Mayor Dunne was elected on the municipal ownership platform, the change of sentiment displayed by a majority of 33,126 seems almost unbelievable. An explanation is not hard to find. Mayor Dunne has showed himself to be a well-intending, impossible man who pursued an impossibility. The City Council has never been friendly to him and he has shown little tact in his attempts to win its support. His administration has been the nearest approach to that of a doctrinaire which, it is to be hoped, Chicago will ever endure. As it is now, he is apparently out of politics for good, and Chicago has what it pleases the prophets to call a business man's administration.

Mayor Dunne's Failure

There is something pathetic in the career of Mayor Dunne. He has honestly attempted reforms, but he lacked practical sense and possessed a singular susceptibility to the advice of women like Margaret Haley and men like

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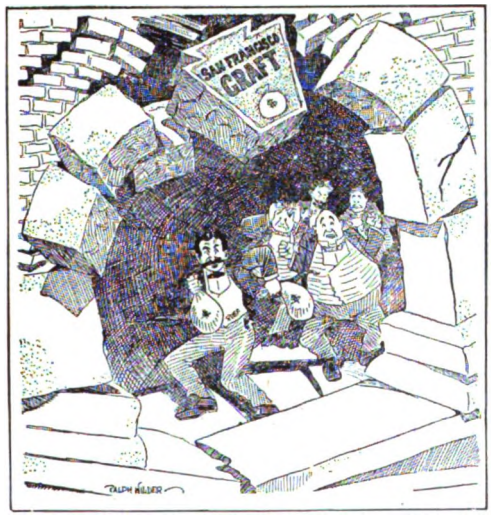
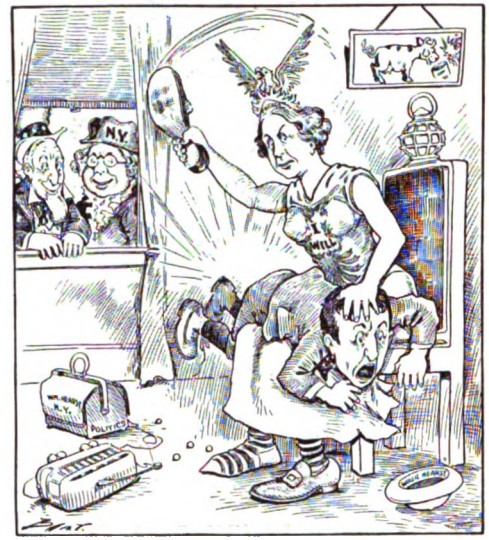
Raymond Robbins and Louis Post. His failure has dealt a severe blow to real municipal reform, for it has strengthened the impression that reformers lack practical sense. In some ways Mayor Dunne's administration has brought good. Peter Bartzen, for instance, has taken his position as building inspector seriously. Mayor Dunne's appointees precipitated a most serious agitation over the public schools which has wrought little good and bade fair to weaken an effective administration. His administration of the police, while in certain regions effective, in the end at least degenerated to the last depths of maladministration. Certain forms of vice have never been more common than at the present time.

Mayor Busse and the Future

Mayor Busse is a man at every point the opposite of Mayor Dunne. He has worked his way up through the labyrinth of Republican politics to a position where he is the controlling factor between the Deneen and the federal wings of the party. His election will probably mean that the federal wing has control of the city, while the Deneen wing has control of the county. Mr. Busse has a not altogether unspotted political past, but he has given a good administration of the post-office and promises an equally efficient administration of the city. One thing at least is certain, the group of men behind



ANOTHER EARTHQUAKE
Wilder in Chicago *Record-Herald*



PUT THIS DOWN TO CHICAGO'S CREDIT
She gave Willie Hearst of New York what was coming to him, at her election, and nobody has called in the Humane Society yet
Bartholomew in the Minneapolis *Journal*

him represents entirely different interests from those of Mayor Dunne, and it is probable the next four years will see less emphasis laid upon "democracy" and more upon "efficiency." Whether or not this will mean also a diminution of graft and a better police administration remains to be seen. There is a hopeful side in his election, in that it is the expression of the new interest taken by the commercial interests of the city. Chicago has suffered from all sorts of competent and incompetent critics. Unless we mistake, the tide has turned, and instead of criticism we are to have genuine betterment. It is to be sincerely hoped that under the new régime this betterment may include new ideas of municipal beauty and progress, as well as of business administration.

The Struggle of San Francisco for Reform

San Francisco deserves the sympathy of all good citizens in her effort to free herself from the grasp of the corrupt politicians. For the past few weeks Boss Abraham Ruef has been attempting to avoid trial on a great number of indictments. At the present time he is held under bond for $650,000, and it looks as if his old corruptionists were turning against him. He is charged

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Photograph by G. V. Buck, Washington

GEORGE OTIS SMITH
The new Director of the United States Geological Survey

with having bribed the supervisors to grant franchises to city railroads, telephone and gas and electric companies. The details of the indictments are almost unbelievable. In one case Ruef is charged with having got $485,000, of which he divided $91,000 among the supervisors. The indictments are likely to involve Mayor Schmitz's popularity, and may possibly serve as a serious blow to the political power of union labor in San Francisco.

The Drama

Ermete Novelli

The first appearance of Ermete Novelli — after Salvini the greatest living Italian comedian — in a répertoire of comedy and tragedy has been viewed with curiosity rather than enthusiasm. Distinctly Italian in method, playing at a high pitch in both voice and gesture, depicting emotion violently with an overabundance of facial expression, the actor suggests, when viewed from the Anglo-Saxon standpoint, exaggeration rather than realistic art. His personality is, however, striking, and his characterizations may be termed representative of the Gallic school. The actor is versatile, if not powerful, judging from northern standards. In comedy he plays with sincerity

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and a marked care for details; he runs the gamut of emotions readily; yet just because he is theatrical, he fails to stir deeply. His "Papa Lebonnard" from the French of Jean Aicard, was impressive. His "King Lear," his "Shylock" and his "Hamlet" were necessarily curious and inadequate, suffering by comparison with well-known Anglo-Saxon interpreters of the rôles. His "Corrado" in "La Morte Civile," a rôle suited to his gifts and personality, was, however, impressively realistic. Primarily a physical actor, his objective methods are momentarily effective, and though he exhibits intelligence, versatility and sincerity, he lacks wholly the convincing subtleties of the psychological school.

Is the Public Tiring of Bernard Shaw

A growing attitude of weariness on the part of the general public toward some of the pleasant as well as unpleasant plays of G. Bernard Shaw caused several excellent presentations of "Widower's Houses" to be given before empty benches. It failed to arouse the anticipated sensation created by its first production a score of years ago in London. While characteristic of Shaw, the play is more trivial in meaning, less sound in wit and philosophy, than certain other brilliant satires from his pen. The revival, too, of Shaw's unsavory and wholly uninteresting "Mrs. Warren's Profession," now untrammeled by police interference, has been attended by little curiosity and less patronage. It is evident that the subject matter of the play is a wholly distasteful one to the American public, for the most part wholesome in its amusement. The conspicuous failure of these two representative works of this daring Irish free lance will undoubtedly sound the death knell of Shaw worship in America.

Ibsen and His Admirers

The vogue for Ibsen has led to the first presentation in America of "The Pretenders," by the Yale University Dramatic Association in two performances in New York for the general public. The play, founded on a Norwegian Saga, is chiefly interesting as one of the earliest works of the author, having been first produced in 1864 in Christiania. It was produced in New York with due reverence for its place in dramatic literature. Scarcely less interesting was the first adequate performance of "Peer Gynt" in the original tongue, given in this country. It was presented by Albert Grau and a good supporting company in Chicago. Many fine passages, ruthlessly cut out in an English production of this masterpiece, were retained. A commendable effort was made to present inspired and lofty moments in the poem, rather than the dramatic skeleton demanded of its beautiful literary dress. On the other hand, the several performances of "The Wild Duck" given by Wright Lorimer in various cities, showed hasty preparation, an insecure conception of the various characters, and a trivial and unworthy use of a deep study.

Four Good Comedies

The month has seen the maturing of four well-constructed and charming comedies to an established place on the stage for at least one season's career. The first of these, "The Lilac Room," is the joint work of Evelyn Greenleaf Sutherland and Beulah M. Dix, two women of importance in the field of drama. This final collaborative work is a cleverly fashioned, interesting and refined picture of English life, which serves as a setting for a resourceful and witty American woman. The leading rôle is played by Amelia Bingham with breezy optimism and natural sweetness. It has served to establish the star once more in metropolitan popularity after a series of failures. It is evident that Leo Deitrichstein and Percival Pollard have fashioned a worthy comedy of Washington life in "The Ambitious Mrs. Alcott," though neither theme nor treatment is startlingly original. While theatrical, it is adroitly made by that master of theatric entertainment, Deitrichstein. It is gratifying to record a second success from the pen of young Avery Hopwood, the author of "Clothes." The new comedy, "The Powers That Be," has met with unusual favor on the road, though it still awaits the conclusive verdict of the metropolis. Unfortunately it deals with the now

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wearisome and threadbare topic of finance and politics. Martha Morton's delightful and wholesome little play, "The Illusion of Beatrice," is soundly built for popularity, and is now headed for a metropolitan opening after several months of capital business on the road. While it has been the ambition of Ethel Barrymore to interpret emotional and character rôles, the public declined to accept her in John Galsworthy's "The Silver Box." The play deals with theft and depravity in the submerged tenth, and though it embodies a moral purpose, and though its characters are vital, it has failed to interest. Outside of Shaw's downfall, this has been the only pronounced disaster of the present hour. The crude and theatric concoction called "The Spoilers," made up of a succession of violent scenes depicting Alaskan life in its rawest condition, could not hope for more than a short life in any first-class theaters.

Shakespearean Plays and Players

While Ben Greet's players give characteristic productions of "As You Like It" with scenery, and of "Julius Cæsar" in the Elizabethan manner, with a more carefully selected company than hitherto, Annie Russell and Viola Allen are presenting six more plays of the bard with gratifying financial and artistic results. Shakespeare has scarcely spelled ruin to the managers of Annie Russell in her performance of "Puck" in "A Midsummer Night's Dream." It is a thoroughly beautiful and superior characterization. Miss Allen's ambition has led her also to include in her répertoire "Cymbeline" with which she started the

MISS ANNIE RUSSELL, A SHAKESPEAREAN PLAYER

She gives a beautiful and superior characterization of "Puck" in "A Midsummer Night's Dream"

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WATER WALKING AS SUCCESSFULLY MASTERED BY CHARLES OLDGRIEVE

This photograph was taken at the finish of a ten-mile walk down the Ohio River on his cedar boat-like shoes. Mr. Oldgrieve takes daily walks of twenty-five to fifty miles on water

season, "Romeo and Juliet," "As You Like It," "Twelfth Night" and "The Merchant of Venice." She is establishing herself as the leading interpreter of Shakespearean heroines on the American stage, her characterizations revealing a technical skill, a breadth and understanding of the rôles not surpassed by any American actress now appearing before the public.

The Religious World

The Tri-Church Council

A decided step nearer organic union between the churches of the Congregationalists, United Brethren and Methodist Protestants has been taken by the second Tri-Church Council held in Chicago March 19-21. Over two hundred representatives of the three bodies came together and one of the remarkable features of the gathering was the unity of purpose, and fraternal Christian spirit evinced throughout. For it had been widely felt, previous to the meeting, that no union was possible at this time. Much had been written and spoken since the first meeting of the Council at Dayton, Ohio, in February, 1906, in regard to the obstacles in the way of any action other than federation. Yet the conviction grew upon the members of this second council that each body must be ready to sacrifice some things held dear if by so doing the work of Christ in the world might be advanced by the union of these three denominations. After long and careful debate important changes were made as to polity, and finally a rising vote was taken on proposing the entire Act of Union to the three denominations for their adoption. Only two men recorded their votes in the negative, and they held out for some definite recognition of the doctrine of sanctification in the creed adopted.

The Act of Union.

The Declaration of Faith as adopted at Dayton remains unchanged. It does not undertake to be a complete statement of doctrine but refers to "the teaching of the ancient symbols of the undivided church and to that substance of Christian

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doctrine which is common to the creeds and confessions which we have inherited from the past." It affirms faith in God the Father, Jesus Christ the Redeemer and the Holy Spirit that moves to repentance and faith, and the belief "that all who are through faith the children of God constitute the Church of Christ." The name of the new body is to be "The United Churches of the Methodist Protestant, the United Brethren and the Congregational churches." A National Council, which is to be a legislative body, will meet quadrennially and will be composed of representatives elected by the annual conferences of the states. The conduct of local affairs is to be entrusted to the annual or state conferences and to the district associations which are their subdivisions. The principle of autonomy of the individual church, a distinguishing feature of Congregationalism guaranteed in the polity adopted at Dayton, is not specified in the present Act of Union because unacceptable to the United Brethren, who, on their part, resigned government by bishops or any officer having supreme control. The vested interests of the United Brethren were carefully guarded. The missionary, evangelistic, educational, church building, Sunday-school, publishing and other benevolent societies and boards of the three bodies will be reorganized into societies consolidating the work of all of them, and responsible to the National Council. It is to be remembered that eighteen months must elapse before this Act of Union can be an accomplished fact by its adoption by all three of the bodies concerned.

The Religious Education Association

The Religious Education Association, under its new general secretary, Henry F. Cope, is growing increasingly active. At the last recent convention there was established a new department, that of Fraternal and Social Service. It is planned to group in this department social workers, members of fraternal organizations and representatives of similar institutions who are interested in religious education. A number of lodges and individual members of fraternal organizations have already joined this department, and it is expected that it will become of increasing importance. Persons interested in the development of religious education can not do better than coöperate with this vigorous association.

The Aftermath of the Tokyo Riots of 1905.

There was recently held in the Young Men's Christian Association Hall, Tokyo, Japan, an interesting meeting. It consisted of representatives from the various churches and missions whose property was more or less damaged in the Tokyo riots in September, 1905. They were called together to receive a consolation fund which had been raised for their benefit under the auspices of the Congress of Religionists. This body comprises in its membership Shintoists, Buddhists and Christians of all kinds, and it enlisted the interest of prominent business men, bankers and statesmen. By this means a sum of 13,189.65 yen was raised, of which religious circles contributed about 5,000 yen. Of this amount the portion of the Christians was comparatively small, because they had already made relief contributions to their fellow Christians. The whole amount was divided carefully, even down to mills, as follows:

	Yen.
Roman Catholic Church, Honjo	5,123.92
Scandinavian Alliance, Honjo	3,601.742
Methodist-Episcopal Church, Asakusa	1,128.205
Methodist Protestant Church, Asakusa	303.695
Gospel Mission, Asakusa	367.12
Salvation Army, Asakusa	176.845
Presbyterian Church, Shitaya	939.935
Presbyterian Church, Shitaya	811.085
Canadian Methodist Church, Shitaya	430.543
Presbyterian Church, Nihombashi	208.56
St. John's Episcopal Church, Asakusa	100.00

(The last one declined the relief.)

The motive in this movement was not to reimburse the losses, but to show that the riots were not religious, and to exhibit the common spirit of sympathy in the religious world. The giving and the receiving together constitute a striking evidence of spiritual brotherhood. The meeting of the World's Student Christian Federation, which was held April 3 in Tokyo, made a profound impression upon the country. General Ito gave $5,000 toward evangelistic campaigns, and his gift may be regarded as significant of the attitude of many Japanese officials.

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SHANTY-BOAT FOLKS

BY

JOHN LEISK TAIT

YESTERDAY the yellow strip of sand lying half a mile below my dwelling-place on the bank of the Mississippi River was as lonely a bit of landscape as one could find. Green willows overhung it landward, and upon the opposite side the curling waters of the great stream lapped and hissed. There was no sound there but the call of an occasional bird, the sibilance of the waters laving the sandy shore and the distant roar of traffic in the city, miles away, coming occasionally as the wind veered in the right direction, to emphasize the remoteness of this spot from the business of the world.

This morning it is alive with the dwellings of men. Children tumble about in its golden drifts and build playhouses among the wrack and wreckage of great trees washed down from no one knows how many leagues northward. Men are busy driving stakes and anchoring their strange craft. Women appear and disappear at the doors and windows, plying their housewifely arts, or call shrilly to each other and to their little ones. A mangy cur and a billy goat are battling over some ancient disagreement, and from the top of one of the queer habitations a long-shanked rooster is crowing his declaration of independence of all and sundry.

To-morrow they will, probably, all be gone and the place will resume its accustomed air of loneliness. These are shanty-boat folks — strange nomads of the watercourses, literally as well as metaphorically a floating population, here to-day and gone to-morrow. They toil not, neither do they spin — unless you work into the good graces of one of the grimy-pawed, keen-eyed men, when he will spin for your delectation as pretty a yarn of adventure by land and river as you would care to hear. It does not take much to win his favor. A plug of black tobacco, or the liberty of a small black flask will be ample; and once yours, your shanty-boat friend is yours forever.

Statistics have never busied themselves about these people. They are missed, for the most part, by the census enumerator. No man can say, with any credible presumption of accuracy, how many of them there may be floating their indolent lives away along the Mississippi River and its tributaries. But there is one fact which is patent to the most superficial observer: They form a class by themselves.

Dwelling in movable habitations, passing from city to city and from state to state, from forest to glebe and from clime to clime without exertion, these visitors from beyond the sky-line are invested with an atmosphere of quaint interest like that which clings about the gipsies. But they are a better fed and more contented class. They are seldom of criminal proclivities. Life is easy for them, and full of interest because of unceasing change.

Lazy as the tramp or the gipsy proverbially is, the shanty-boatman need not do so much violence to his own inclinations as must these less-favored sons of indolence in order that the larder shall

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be supplied. A hook and line dropped from the shady side of his ark will procure fresh fish. The great river casts up unlimited fuel for his use. When the surplus findings of his nets and lines happen to prove insufficient to provide his meat and flour, a few days' industry at wood-cutting, or logging or other rough labor of the sort, will furnish the means of purchasing the required supplies. As far as clothing is concerned, that is the least of his troubles, literally and absolutely. A pair of overalls, brogans, a flannel shirt and essential linen, with a coat for cold weather, are about all that he requires; and his wife and children go more scantily clothed than he.

For the shanty-boatman has wife and children. He is an easy-going, comfort-loving creature, and kindness of heart is one of his strong points. He delights in his family. Its appeal to his own lazy strength and easy providence touches the softest spot in his heart. He has all the comforts of home in that dingy little floating shanty of his, and he is a poor sort of shanty-boatman indeed if he has not some slimpsy, frowzy, smiling woman and a brood of rugged little ragamuffins to share its pleasures with him. It is contrary to all his ideas of the fitness of things that a man should inhabit a shanty-boat and remain a bachelor.

"All the comforts of home"

He is a bird of passage, coming southward as the days shorten, and following the flowers northward again in the spring; only, in making his northward journey, he must, perforce, invoke the assistance of a tug. Sometimes he pays for this service by working as a deckhand upon one of the great steamboats that ply up and down the Mississippi, the Missouri and the Ohio Rivers, or by laboring for a time as a longshoreman in New Orleans.

He can be depended upon to cease working just as soon as the imperative call of necessity is stilled. And why not? He has entered into the land of the *lotophagoi,* and his life is one of unceasing charm. To labor is to lose his illusions. It suffices that the sun is warm; that the river is bountiful; that the winds play

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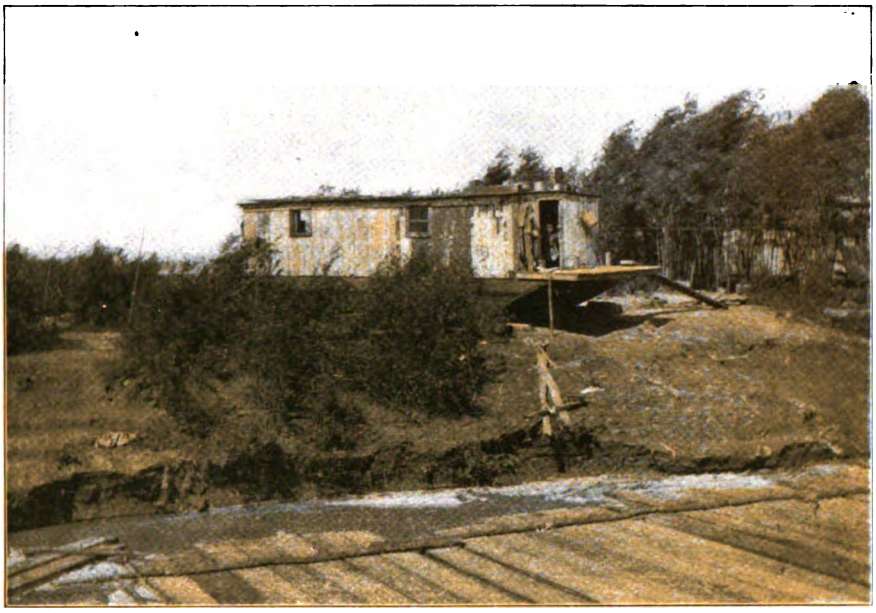
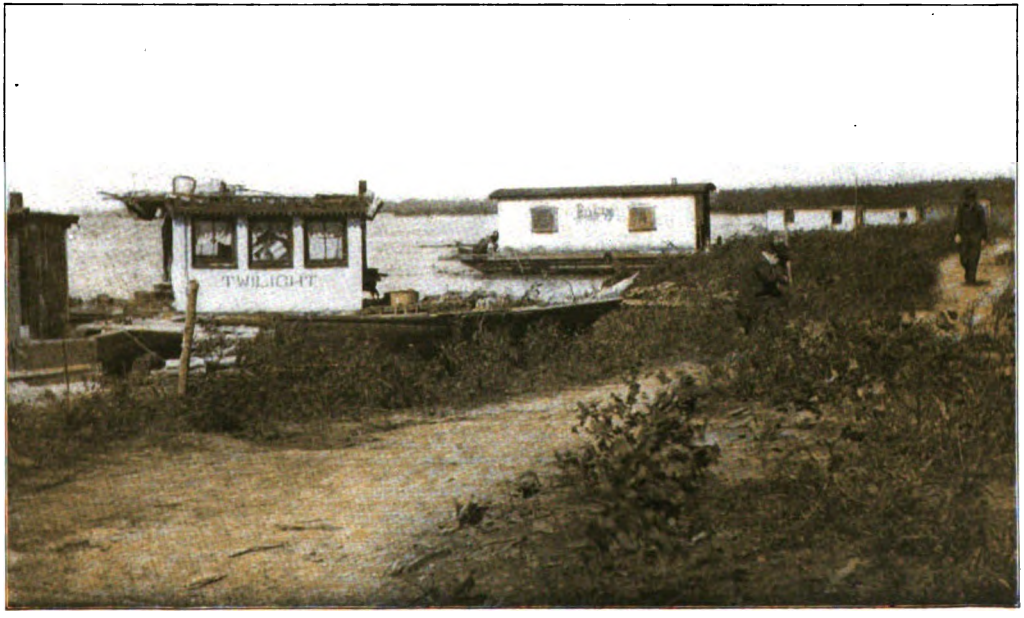


Laid up for the summer

about him as he dreams in his swaying home; that his children surround him to learn of his way of life, to partake of his instincts, his likes and dislikes, his prejudices and proclivities and to perpetuate the sway of his own riparian Arcady when the dissolving forces of his being carry him forever beyond the shadowy bourne whence there is no returning.

Once a shanty-boatman, always a shanty-boatman, is a rule to which there are no exceptions. The quiet charm of the life, its freedom from worry and toil, its unceasing and delightful change, its tacit freemasonry, its large leisure



"This morning it is alive with the dwellings of men"

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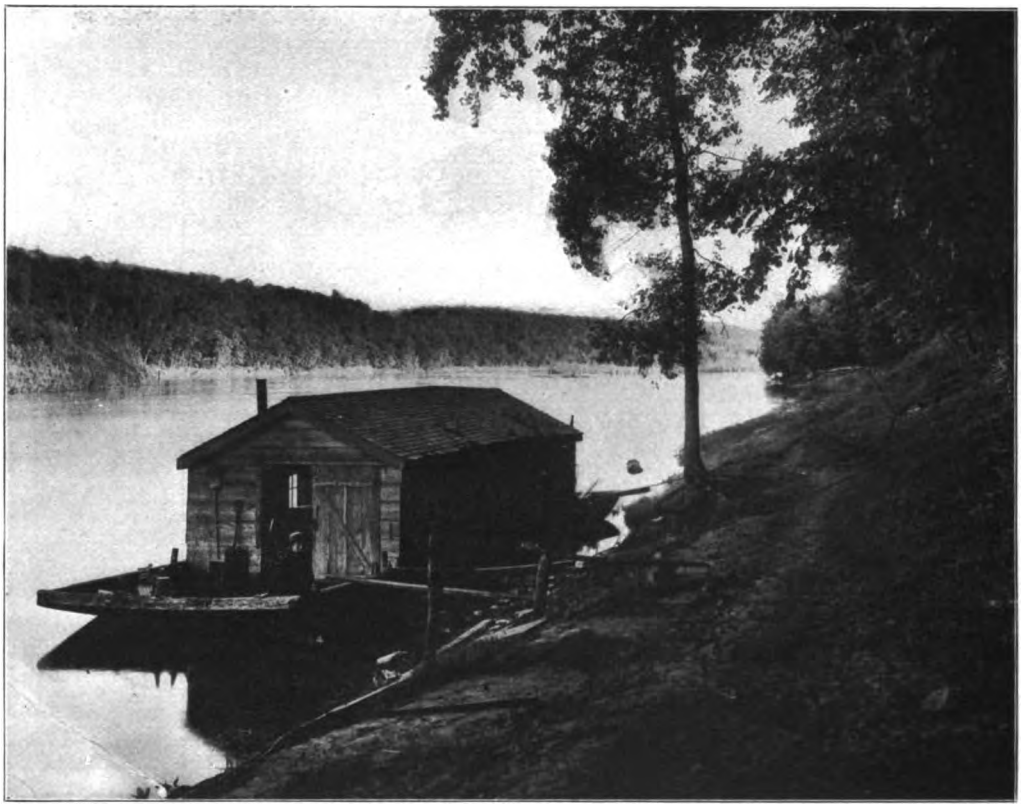
and healthfulness — all these combined prove irresistible to whomsoever sips of the dangerous sweets of shanty-boating.

But it is necessary to make a distinction. The shanty-boatman is the Arab of the rivers. There are others who live in dwellings floating upon barges along the banks of our great inland streams, who can not be thus classified. These bear the same relation to the shanty-boatmen that the dwellers in habitations of wood and stone maintain toward the nomads whose housing is in tents. They are, in fact, house-boatmen and not shanty-boatmen. And they ply industries as varied and as active as their brethren whose homes are founded upon pillars of brick and stone instead of heaving currents.

You will find their homes, generally, tied up along the bank of the river near some considerable city, where they frequently constitute no small settlement. In one such assemblage of houseboats which maintained its integral existence for the larger part of six months during last summer and fall, the following trades and occupations were represented: One proprietor was a house carpenter; another was a blacksmith; three were paperhangers; one was a plasterer; two were painters; two were ship-carpenters; two were employed in a macaroni factory; four were watchmen; three were musicians employed in the orchestra of a leading theater; one was a photographer; one was a landscape artist — and a good one — who had chosen this unconventional and inexpensive means of securing the quiet and leisure necessary to prosecute successfully his studies. There is a whole, delightful story about this one man, but it is not for this article.



A squatter houseboat on the Mississippi

Where do all these people come from? I put the question to the owner of one of the houseboats in the settlement just referred to. His answer was instructive, and not a little surprising.

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"That white boat with blue trimmin's belongs to a feller from Pittsburg," he assured me. "That one with the tile chimbley at the fur end was built about forty mile this side o' Minneapolis. This one, here, is from Pee-ory, Illinois. The feller that built her sold her when he got here, an' went on down to the isthmus to work on the canal. That little yaller boat over there was built on White River [Arkansas.] My own boat, that one with the wire screens at the winders, was built at Cairo, whur I used to live. Them two just beyant was both built right here. I helped put the sidin' on the fur one. The next one was built down on Red River. That one with the flagpole on her was built up on the Missouri, sommers, away up in Dakoty I b'lieve. An' the rest of 'em — Lord! Mister, I can't tell whur they was built — everywheres, 'most, this side of Alasky!"

The home of eleven people and three dogs

A floating general merchandise store

A photograph boat

Most of them, inquiry developed, had changed hands several times. Only three out of thirty-eight were built within a hundred miles of their present location. Most of them passed on down the river in a few weeks, as work grew scarce or change of scene seemed desirable to their proprietors.

These queer craft range in price from less than fifty dollars to several thousand dollars. Some of them are sumptuously appointed and form the headquarters of

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luxurious boat-clubs, hunting-clubs, fishing-clubs, etc. One well-known Chicagoan spends his summers with a chosen party of friends aboard such a floating house, and at almost any point along the Mississippi River, from Cairo to the gulf, you can hear of his splendid hospitality and conviviality.

his dwelling-place; and behold, he is ready to launch upon his leisurely life-voyage with a slatternly woman and an incessantly widening circle of children for his crew. They pack like sardines into these unpretentious habitations, sometimes taking dogs, chickens and even goats in with them. The tariff may rise

"They pack like sardines into these unpretentious habitations"

Occasionally they are put to baser uses. Sometimes gambling hells and saloons are maintained aboard house-boats, for the sake of evading stringent state laws. Sometimes, too, one finds a full-fledged general merchandise store afloat upon a barge tied to the trees beside the great river's shelving bank.

But the most picturesque and interesting member of the family is the shanty-boat, and by far the most peculiar individual among those who inhabit them is the keen-eyed, lazy shanty-boatman.

His good nature is unfailing. He asks so little of life — and he gets so much! Two or three months' work will pay for

or fall, as it pleases the politicians; he does not bother his head about politics. Financial conditions do not affect him, for he has little to do with finances. Crops may be good or bad; it is all one to him: He can lure his living from the river just the same. Touch him upon theological questions, ask him about his preparation for the life to come, and he will smile slowly and drawl:

"Well, I dunno. I aim t' do th' best I kin here; an' I reckon th' good Lord won't be too hard on a pore feller that lived in a shanty-boat, an' done as near right as he knew how to, atter he dies. Do you?"

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HOW THE JEWISH IMMIGRANT IS CARED FOR AT NEW YORK

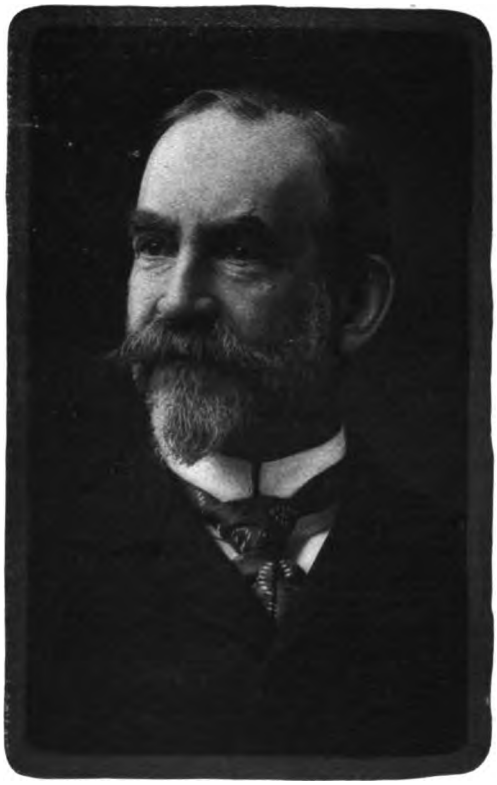
BY

A. S. ISAACS

PROFESSOR OF SEMITICS, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

WITH a million of immigrants arriving at New York annually, the question of management becomes a serious problem, whose intricacies are on the whole satisfactorily solved not only by the United States authorities on Ellis Island, New York's port of entry, but by numerous organizations, partly benevolent and partly religious, which interest themselves in the new arrivals. Under the direction of so many agencies in helpful and energetic coöperation, order reigns and the best results are accomplished.

Now the Jewish immigrant feels doubly a stranger, for as a rule he comes from inhospitable European lands, where he has suffered either open or secret persecution; and he seeks a home in Amer-



JUDGE ISAACS
Who was president of the Baron de Hirsch Fund from 1891 to 1904

DAVID BLAUSTEIN
Superintendent of the Educational Alliance

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ica as his only place of refuge, where he and his loved ones are allowed life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. The majority are from Russia — many have stories to tell of cruelties perpetrated on them during the era of *pogroms* in that realm. Brought up thus in an atmosphere of fear and repression, what must be their thoughts as they disembark on American soil amid thousands of incoming immigrants, light-hearted and hopeful, who have never experienced their privations! Knowing generally no other language than Yiddish — a blend of German and Hebrew — how will they make themselves intelligible and how will their first steps be guided in a civilization so dissimilar to Czardom?

They are not left long in doubt. As they stand massed together and the inspectors are beginning their work, a representative of the United Hebrew Charities appears and accosts each stranger in his own familiar Yiddish. Almost miraculously all feel among friends, fear is thrown aside, while question and answer are rapidly interchanged. About one hundred thousand Jewish immigrants reached the metropolis last year, about seventy per cent of whom remained in fair but crowded Manhattan, coming from all quarters, chiefly Russia, Hungary, Roumania. Some are well-to-do and have relatives similarly circumstanced; they are capable of providing for themselves and are soon on their way jubilant. But the large majority have little more than the necessary pittance demanded by the law, are totally unprepared by reason of ignorance to advance a step without some guidance, and would fall into trouble if left to themselves. It is just here where the United Hebrew Charities extends its welcome help in the person of a kindly and thoroughly experienced representative. This organization, composed of a number of leading Jewish benevolent societies,

ADOLPH LEWISOHN
A Director of the Educational Alliance

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administers relief very effectively, distributing along various lines about a quarter of a million annually.

This official's genial assistance is first utilized in solving the vexatious problem of correct address, as many persons come without knowing the exact location of their friends or have it written in too indecipherable a scrawl for the regular inspectors to unravel. With patience and good humor the right address is soon ascertained, a process often aided by advertisements in the Yiddish papers. It happens frequently that the immigrant is detained or about to be deported through some misunderstanding of conditions. Such special inquiry cases are carefully considered, and steps are promptly taken, if this is possible under the law, to secure his release and restoration to his friends. Many delicate points as to health, character, etc., are thus settled, and the records show whether immigrants arrive with or without money, whether they have relatives in America, possess medical certificates, etc. That much detailed correspondence is thereby necessary, is readily understood.

Apart from mere registration and inquiry, a further step in the kindly treatment of the immigrant is shown by the arrangements made by the Charities when the new arrivals are detained over the Jewish holidays in the spring or fall, whereby they are enabled to celebrate the religious festivals according to traditional custom. Appropriate meals are supplied and a convenient hall furnished for religious worship. For instance, on a recent Passover evening, the immigrants were regaled with an elaborate meal, consisting of soup, poultry, fruit, nuts, etc., and were provided with linen tablecloths, napkins, new knives, forks, and dishes for the occasion. It was more than a perfunctory scene — a committee of New York Jews and Jewesses attended personally to the comfort of all concerned. Is it possible to describe the emotions of joy and gratitude on the part of the immigrants as they find themselves treated like guests of honor? With what fresh courage and determination will they begin their new life, when it opens for them at last, as they think of the evening's entertainment, with its songs, its prayers, its friendly counsel! Whether it be peddling or farming, tailoring or carpentry, that is to be chosen, they realize that they are no longer strangers; for helpful hands and loving hearts have made them welcome.

If some are disappointed that they do not discover gold in the streets — that legend had been a favorite in the old home — they take abundant comfort in the thought of American hospitality, which perhaps is more precious. It is not to be wondered at that when some years ago an American commissioner of emigration on his official journey to Russia entered a small village, with a cry of joy the rabbi hastened to him, exclaiming with a pathos that is not to be forgotten: "And dost thou come from America — that blessed land!" It is indeed practically the only country on the face of the globe which is open freely and gladly to the persecuted of every clime — not the least of the privileges our republic enjoys, even if some would restrict its hospitality.

When the immigrant has landed, it must not be supposed that he is left to himself. He is constantly made to feel that his wants are not neglected; in fact, it is claimed by certain critics that too much is done for him, if that is possible when every agency has only one aim in view, his Americanization in its truest sense. The stately Educational Alliance, corner of Jefferson Street and East Broadway, is a kind of people's palace and Cooper Institute combined for the new comer, as well as for his brother who preceded him a few years. This edifice is a beehive of intelligent and well-directed effort, in the line of education — physical, moral, and intellectual. Here are classes in English for the adult and youth which prepare them for the evening school, while the little ones are as carefully instructed so as to begin in due season their public school course. Here are circles for young men and young women in the languages, literature, and domestic science, a gymnasium, library, roof garden, art exhibition, with lectures, concerts, and other forms of refined and uplifting entertainment; the children in large numbers attending the Sabbath afternoon service and following with interest the English sermonettes for their special edification. The Alliance has

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been in active operation since 1891, and its worth is so well recognized that it has received generous gifts from non-Israelites like Andrew Carnegie and Mr. Phipps.

It is the *raison de'être* of the Baron de Hirsch fund to provide for the immigrant. Organized in 1890, when it received $2,500,000 from Baron de Hirsch so as to render the Russian and Roumanian immigrant self-supporting, its varied activities have resulted in a vast amount of practical good. For instance for many years the fund has carried on the immigrants' English classes for old and young; thousands have thereby been enabled to earn a livelihood more rapidly and secure some independence. If it is affecting to see the zeal with which mature men learn the rudiments of English, how thrilling to watch the boys and girls at the flag drill, when they declare their allegiance to "one flag, one country." At the Baron de Hirsch Trade School, in charge of the fund, several thousand young men, recent arrivals, have been taught carpentry, tailoring, plumbing, iron-working, sign and fresco painting. Each graduate receives the tools of his trade and experiences no difficulty in securing a paying position. The fund also maintains an agricultural school at Woodbine, New Jersey, for immigrants with special fitness for such education. This city, duly incorporated, has its residents almost entirely from immigrants who prefer farm work and light manufacturing in healthful surroundings to life in New York's Jewish quarter. It is the immigrant who has cleared the acres which he has bought on favorable terms from the fund. He has built the houses, shops, schools and synagogues in the settlement. Representative graduates of the agricultural school occupy positions in the faculties of leading agricultural colleges. What admirable and helpful work thus to divert the immigrant from cramping and unambitious pursuits, the sweat-shop or the peddler's pack, and teach him the beauty and blessedness of labor on the farm!

Another useful agency for the immigrant, whether just arrived or settled a year or two in the city, is the Industrial Removal Office, which has so far sent thirty thousand persons away from New York — few of whom return to that city — into four hundred distant towns. The value of this society would be more quickly recognized and its influence more clearly felt, if there could be a pause for a while in the rush of new arrivals. Little by little, however, as the work of diversion and distribution is enlarged, there will be a steady current of settlement leading from New York into the interior. It is often charged against the Russian immigrant that if not an idler he is merely a trader, not a producer; but the trades represented in the 6,922 persons sent from New York in 1906 included every variety of industry, from bakers, barbers, bookbinders, blacksmiths, bricklayers, to cabinetmakers, carpenters, cooks, coopers, capmakers, cigar manufacturers, and so on through the long alphabet of occupations to upholsterer, varnisher, watchmaker, weaver, waistmaker, woodcarver — a convincing proof of the versatility of the Jewish immigrant. These people went as far South as the Mexican border, and as far West as the Pacific coast. If a few inevitably drift back to New York, such is the magic of city life, the great majority are satisfied to remain in their new homes, where they thrive as a class.

Is nothing more done for the immigrant than the work of the organizations already mentioned, which educate him for the public school, the farm, the forge, the workshop; prepare him for American citizenship, or direct him out of the crowded city into the distant town where opportunities are better and conditions more healthful? The list is by no means exhausted. The sons of the immigrant, if adapted for such work, are welcomed at the Hebrew Technical Institute, which trains them to become artists as well as artisans in different callings, electrical engineers, machinists, draughtsmen, designers, metalworkers, eighty per cent of the graduates earning their living in such professions. His daughters are educated at the Hebrew Technical School for Girls in helpful housework, sewing, dressmaking, millinery, typewriting, etc. There is a society which loans money without interest if one's necessities are great; another which will provide him with free burial, if poverty follows him to the grave. There are hospitals up-town and

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down-town which will receive him in case of illness. No link is missing in the lengthening chain of kindnesses — the more exact translation of the Hebrew word which is usually rendered charity or benevolence; and from the cradle to the grave its gentle ministrations in varied form never cease.

When Peter Stuyvesant grudgingly permitted, as is generally held, the first batch of Jewish immigrants to land at New Amsterdam, he exacted from them one special obligation — that they should take care of their poor. That obligation has been faithfully kept; and not only in New York but in Chicago, Philadelphia, and every city throughout the land the immigrant is welcomed by his brethren and given a helping hand where necessary. That the new arrivals, under such genial auspices, gradually become self-reliant, patriotic American citizens, and compare favorably with representatives of any other class twenty years after settlement on American soil, is admitted by those qualified to judge.

JAPAN AS A COLONIZING NATION

BY

K. K. KAWAKAMI

K. K. Kawakami is a native of Japan. Having graduated from the Tokyo College of Law, he became a contributor to the leading periodicals, and, for a short time, was an associate editor of the "Yorodzu," a daily paper published in the capital. He also published several books in Japanese, among which are "A History of Germany," "Labour Legislation," "Modern Socialism" and "Industrial Education," as well as an English work, "The Political Ideas of Modern Japan." He was a member of the Imperial Japanese Commission to the St. Louis World's Fair, and prepared the official report on that exposition. The success of Japan as a colonizing power in Formosa, as described by Mr. Kawakami, is not without bearing upon Japanese-American relations, particularly as regards the Philippines.

WITH the termination of her victorious campaigns in Manchuria, Japan at last entered into the family of the world's great Powers. An insignificant nation whose prowess had been recognized but little, she measured swords with the mightiest of foes, and out of the flame of battle she came a victor, holding in her hand the destinies of the Far East. The West was astounded by this brilliant military success, and in this victorious nation it discerned its formidable rival in the future international struggle for supremacy in the East.

But let us ask: Has the West grasped the true meaning of Japan's achievements and aspirations? Has it read into her underlying genius and her intrinsic capacity in the true light of justice? To be more precise, has it not looked upon the insular nation merely as a gang of splendid fighters, and as nothing more?

As the pathos and poetry of the war pale away in the distance, there grows up in the western mind, in a mysterious, vague, unconscious way, a sort of antipathy toward Japan, a mingled sentiment of distrust and suspicion. Still bristling with he warlike spirit of feudal ages, when the sword of the *samurai* reigned supreme, the Japanese, we are told, gloat over the brutalities of war, entertaining no fear of death. Furthermore, says the author of "The New Far East," theirs has been a happy leap in the dark, following no preconceived plans, even the seeming policy of Japanese statesmen being naught but "the action of men who wittingly embarked in a mad gamble with destiny." By dint of this audacity and military prowess, Japan finally installed

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herself in Korea and Southern Manchuria; but does she possess, the West queries, that constructive ability which would enable her to exact the full value that the late successful campaign should give? More Togos and more Oyamas she may produce, but is there, and will there be, among her statesmen a single Lord Cromer whose executive genius may convert her new dependencies on the continent into prosperous colonies and guide them into the path of civilization? With sword in hand, she enlisted the admiration of the world by display of bravery and heroism, but, now that the blade is in its scabbard, would she govern those territories acquired by arms in accord with the principles and policies of civilized nations? These are questions that have of late frequently been brought forward in Europe and America.

An attempt to solve these questions should not permit of any sentimental argument; least of all, should it be tempered by bigotry, racial or national. With this point in view, let us study the colonial policy of Japan as revealed in the administration in Formosa, an island which she acquired as the fruits of her victory over China.

The very first colony the Mikado's Empire has ever possessed, its management taxed heavily the genius of the nation; and from her efforts to overcome manifold difficulties attendant upon this new undertaking we may be able to judge the nature of the administrative policy which she may enunciate in Korea and in the Liao-tung peninsula. Besides, we are apprised by the author of "The Passing of Korea," that an American gentleman, long resident in Formosa, publicly remarked that "the methods used by Japan in Korea are precisely those that have been used in Formosa ever since the China-Japan war of 1894."

That we may the better realize the difficulties besetting Japan's enterprise in Formosa, let us take a glance at the condition of the island before it came into Japanese possession. Then the island was the veritable rendezvous of outlaws and bandits and the most unscrupulous adventurers from all lands, and especially from China, who, escaping the jurisdiction of their native countries, openly defied all authority. In its unexplored regions, which formed by far the greatest portion of the island, the fierce savages were left to fight and kill among themselves; worse still, these bloodthirsty aborigines often descended from their vantage-ground in the jungles and mountains upon the peaceable natives, to pillage and murder wherever they passed. Not only did these barbarians work havoc among their fellow inhabitants on the island, but they showed no mercy toward shipwrecked crews. More than once, those helpless sailors who met disaster off the eastern coasts of Formosa sought mercy of these inhospitable aborigines whose invariable response was their murderous clubs and spears. Between these savages and desperadoes, the Chinese local authorities could do nothing but tremble and connive at their atrocities.

Like Saghalien in the north, the island of Formosa was thus reduced into a diabolical place. No wonder that even the Spanish *conquistador,* who went forth in search of land into all quarters of the globe, did not venture the exploitation of this island. Portugal and Holland, when their seafaring spirit was in flower, sent forth into Formosa many a daring soul, only to abandon after a short experience all hopes for successful colonization on the island. In the past century, England and France were in a position to occupy the island without facing the slightest resistance on the part of China, and yet neither of these powers desired to lay hand upon it.

It was this island that Japan obtained as reward for her victorious campaign against China! When the treaty of Shimo-no-seki was signed, that wily Chinese diplomat, Li Hung-chang, laughed "in his sleeve," for did he not give away that island to Japan much as he would "a pair of old shoes," as the Chinese say? Not that the territory was poor of natural resources; most certainly Nature was extremely bountiful to the island. Only, the author of the peace treaty knew that the island had proved an annoying burden upon the Court at Peking; and he could not but believe that the Japanese could reap from it nothing but continuous trouble and endless drain upon their treasury. Whether his prophecy proved right or not, we are to-day in a position to judge.

The island of Formosa has an area of

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13,500 square miles and supports some 3,000,000 inhabitants. Put the states of Massachusetts and Connecticut together, and you have an approximate idea of the size and population of Formosa. Small as was the territory, its administration called for the greatest talent Japan could offer—and Japan had not had the slightest experience in colonial administration.

At this critical moment, there came to the fore a man who, like an Atlas, assumed the grave responsibility upon his shoulders. A physician by training, this man, Shimpei Goto, is essentially a statesman, possessing remarkable administrative ability and extraordinary foresight. Adroit and sagacious, he is withal possessed of unswerving will and unwavering courage. Whether with surgeon's knife in his hand beside the patient, or at his desk in the government office, he is always an indefatigable toiler. More than this, he combines in his person an unusual breadth of view and a keen power of observation. Through the force of sheer efficiency and merit, he has risen to prominence in his public life with an unparalleled rapidity.

Starting his career as the superintendent of an obscure local hospital, he was immediately raised to the directorship of the Bureau of Sanitary Affairs in the Central Government. It was, however, the insight of the late Baron Kodama that first fully recognized Dr. Goto's rare talent. When General Kodama assumed the post of Governor-General of Formosa soon after the island had been ceded to Japan he at once honored Goto with the position of Civil Governor, empowering him to administer the affairs of the colony after his own ideals. For ten years since then, Dr. Goto has been the real ruler of Formosa, enjoying the limitless confidence of his superior, General Kodama, and the home government. If Japan is to-day able to boast of a remarkable success in her first experience in colonization, that success is undoubtedly due to the wise policy adopted by Dr. Goto, whose merit has been rewarded with a baronage.

The fundamental keynote of Japan's colonial policy enunciated in Formosa lies in this: that the natives should be free to retain their harmless customs, and practice their time-honored beliefs and superstitions not hostile to the execution of good laws, while the mother country should educate them in such a manner as would transform them from within gradually and enable them to translate the civilization of the mother country into their daily life. In the execution of this fundamental principle, Japan adopted a measure of moderation backed by sufficient severity to make it impressive. Indeed, it was impossible to carry out such policy without the support of an ample military power.

Though ceded to Japan in 1905, it was only after a year's hard campaign that the entire island came under the actual control of Japan. Even then, the native insurgents, instigated by the former Chinese officials, caused frequent disturbances, and it was only after an interval of six years that the maintenance of military forces there became unnecessary. But even while shot and shell were employed in disciplining the stubborn and the lawless, the natives were gradually made to feel that the Japanese came there not to molest their customs and habits. This delicate recognition of the peculiar emotional life of the natives was perhaps the most effective of many factors which helped Japan to win their confidence and friendship. The execution of such policy, of course, necessitated a complicated system of administration. While as a fundamental principle the laws of the mother country were applied to the colony, many restrictions and exceptions were made thereto, so as not to encroach needlessly upon native traditions.

I have stated that the cardinal point of Japan's colonial policy is to transform the natives from within by giving them the secret of advanced civilization. Now, what would be the best means to attain this end? Education, you may answer. To Dr. Goto, however, material reforms are as urgent as education. It sounds all very "sublime," he argues, to speak of moral improvement as the basic method of uplifting the backward people, but what would the schoolhouse and the pulpit amount to, where there are no roads in the proper sense of the word, no bridges, when the people are constantly infested with all sorts of plagues and endemic diseases, with no efficient physician to tend the victims?

So Dr. Goto commenced his work of reform with the building of hospitals and

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the importation of expert physicians, the inauguration of a modern drainage system, the sinking of model wells, the spanning of rivers with iron bridges, the laying of good roads, the construction of railroads, and the opening of efficient postal and telegraph systems throughout the entire island.

The wisdom of this method has been fully vindicated in the course of a decade. Brought into close contact with the indisputable conveniences of civilization, even the most skeptical of the natives have not hesitated to renounce their allegiance to the old ideas and customs. Thus awakening to their backward condition, the inhabitants of the island have also begun to feel the need of education which will afford them a deeper and more extensive knowledge of the culture of the mother country. As the consequence, their moral tone has been unconsciously elevated, and many of their vicious habits have been removed without carrying on campaigns against them.

While the material reforms of the island have been vigorously carried on, its educational improvement has likewise proceeded apace. Mr. Alfred Stead sounds a keynote of Japan's colonial policy when he says in his "Great Japan": "In fact, the principles which governed the Japanese policy in Formosa may be said to be the knowledge of the fact that the drain pipe and the schoolhouse are essential elements of progress." Indeed, to Dr. Goto, education and material wellbeing are inseparable; both must be improved side by side. As soon as Japan took possession of the island, a language school was inaugurated in Tai-peh for the purpose of teaching the Japanese language to the Formosans, and the native dialects to the Japanese. The students thus trained have been sent forth into all parts of the island to teach in primary schools, while a considerable number of teachers, conversant with the Formosan tongue, have been brought from the mother country. At present there are some one hundred and forty primary schools on the island, with about six hundred teachers and twenty-two thousand students, including both Japanese and natives. Moreover, three normal schools have recently been established in as many provinces preparing both the natives and the Japanese for the duties of teacher. Some native scholars in the upper classes of the language school have been given an elementary technical education, with special reference to the railway and telegraphic services.

One of the most interesting features of the new educational system is a medical school for training native physicians. Previous to the Japanese occupation of the island, there had been in the entire country not a single physician equipped with the modern knowledge of medicine. The native quacks and mountebanks had been utterly futile before the deadly attack of plagues and fevers for which Formosa had been noted. The result had been an appalling death rate, and the island had been considered unfit for the residence of civilized people. To alleviate this fatal condition, the Japanese authorities established a medical school exclusively for native students whose expenses were defrayed by the government. The number of these students is at present estimated at 139, of whom 134 are natives of Chinese origin, while the remaining five are aborigines. The graduates from this institution have been sent into all parts of the island, while nearly a hundred Japanese physicians, appointed and paid by the government, have been distributed about the country to render medical aid to the people. This measure, assisted by the adoption of a modern system of drainage, the improvement of drinking water, and the inauguration of eleven public hospitals, has resulted in a remarkable decrease in mortality, and a signal improvement of the sanitary conditions on the island. Today, Formosa is as healthful as any place on the earth.

In connection with the educational reforms, steps taken toward the abolition of the opium-smoking habit among the natives are worthy of note. In the Japanese penal law, opium-smoking is prohibited under heavy penalty, but this strict prohibition could not be applied to Formosa, where one hundred and seventy thousand out of three million population were more or less addicted to this pernicious practice. An attempt at the sudden suppression of this protracted habit would have resulted in nothing but panic and consternation among the natives. Consequently, the government resorted to a

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policy of moderation here as elsewhere, and decided to abolish the practice by degrees. While, by vigilant surveillance, the authorities have kept the natives from newly commencing the practice, those who have already suffered from its effects to such an extent that the sudden deprivation of the pipe causes intense pain have been allowed to procure a special warrant, permitting them to continue the habit within certain limits. In addition to this measure, the government established a monopoly in this harmful drug, which will greatly facilitate the ultimate extermination of this abominable practice. Furthermore, teachers in the primary schools have been instructed to exercise their moral influence to impress their pupils with the injurious effects of opium-smoking. The result of these efforts has been remarkable. The number of opium smokers decreased from 169,064 in 1900 to 152,044 in 1902, while the import of the drug decreased from 3,392,602 *yen* to 1,121,455 *yen* in the same period.

Much of the Japanese success in Formosa must be ascribed to the fact that the colonial government entered upon the new enterprise on a suitable scale, thoroughly prepared to spend large sums of money on the fundamental developments of the island. When Baron Kodama assumed the post of Governor-General, he introduced in the Diet at Tokyo a colonial program for the execution of public undertakings to extend over a period of twenty years. Passed into law, this proposal, of which Dr. Goto was the real author, greatly facilitated the rapid development of the colony, allowing the colonial government to pursue its plans without embarrassing interference on the part of the legislature.

The program involves the provision of a trunk line of railway extending from the northern to the southern end of Formosa, at an estimated cost of $14,000,000; the cadastration of the lands incurring a cost of $1,500,000; the construction and improvement of harbors, of which the dredging of Keelung harbor alone necessitates an expenditure of $1,000,000; and the building of suitable government offices and official residences costing $600,000.

While these public works have been pushed ahead with vigor and system, the authorities have not neglected the development of the natural resources of the island, including tea, rice, sugar, hemp and flax, camphor, indigo, paper, silk, cattle, and marine products, coal, sulphur and petroleum. A government tea factory has been erected in the center of tea districts, with a manufacturing capacity of 2,000 pounds a day; a government monopoly in camphor has been established with the double object of protecting the trees and improving the methods of production, thus enabling Formosa to supply almost the whole world with camphor; sugar factories have been liberally subsidized; and agricultural experimental stations have been inaugurated at the cost of the government. These steps have all proved beneficial, and to-day Formosa may be said to be on the highroad to becoming a valuable asset to Japan. The subsidy of the mother country has been diminished year by year, while the Formosan revenue has been growing with remarkable rapidity. The new land survey alone has already added 861,791 *yen* to the annual revenue, while the monopolies in opium, salt and camphor bring to the colonial treasury a profit of about 7,042,286 *yen* per annum. Taking into consideration the steady growth of the revenues from other sources as well, it is expected that by 1910, if not earlier, the colony will be absolutely self-supporting.

That a colony should become almost independent, in respect to its financial condition, in the short period of ten years is indeed a unique fact in the world's history of colonization. As I write, the news comes from Tokyo that Dr., now Baron, Goto, is to be the president of the semi-official South Manchurian Railway Company, which will undoubtedly play an important rôle in the future development of the Manchurian situation. Moreover, Baron Goto will be the adviser to the Japanese Administration in the Liaotung peninsula, empowered to outline the principles which will govern the Japanese policy in Southern Manchuria. Surely, the large-mindedness and generosity which marked the Japanese enterprise in Formosa will be a characteristic feature of the Mikado's policy in Manchuria. As for Korea, we have already mentioned that the Japanese authorities in Seoul are following the methods that have been adopted in Formosa.

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PACKINGTOWN TO-DAY

BY

SHAILER MATHEWS

EDITOR OF "THE WORLD TO-DAY"

Illustrated with unretouched photographs

My examination of Packingtown extended from March 22 to March 30, and included the plants of Swift & Co., Armour & Co., Nelson Morris & Co., Libby, McNeill & Libby, and Schwarzschild & Sulzberger. I saw every stage of the packing process and visited the most important departments repeatedly. I saw the houses under all conditions, from full operation to "clean-up." I have tried to describe things as they are rather than as they may have been a year ago.

Because of my thoroughly lay eye and mind I asked the assistance of Professor E. O. Jordan and Professor Ludwig Hektoen, the former well known among bacteriologists and sanitary experts, and the latter one of the Commission recently summoned by the government to consider the matter of regulations for meat inspection. I should not wish to commit these gentlemen to everything I say relative to Packingtown, but on the other hand my statements as to the healthfulness of the packing-houses express their conclusions as well as my own. I have been largely influenced by their advice and governed by their suggestions as to matters of special inquiry.

I wish also to express my appreciation of the assistance rendered me by the representatives of the great packing-houses as well as by Dr. S. E. Bennett and his force of government inspectors, both veterinary and sanitary, with whom I have talked. No one of them has ever evaded a question or hesitated to show me a room or object I have asked to see.

While I can not claim to have examined everything in a region so great as Packingtown, I have had constantly in mind the reports and descriptions issued during the past year, and in my repeated visits I have studied carefully those processes and places which have been subjected to special criticism. As far as I know there is no stage of the production of food products I have overlooked. The real question that interests people who, like myself, are plain buyers and consumers of beef and mutton and pork, is whether the meat which comes to our tables is slaughtered and prepared under healthful conditions. It is these consumers I have had always in mind as I have gone up and down, through and around the great buildings of Packingtown, and it is for them I write my honest and, so far as I can judge, my unprejudiced, conclusions as regards the conditions under which their food is prepared.

PACKINGTOWN is a little world in itself. It consists of something like four hundred and fifty acres in what is now almost the heart of Chicago in which there are employed from twenty thousand to thirty-five thousand men and women, and in which can be slaughtered in a single day approximately twenty-five thousand cattle, twenty-five thousand sheep and fifty thousand hogs. During the course of a year its entire business must aggregate close to half a billion dollars. It has its bank, its fire departments, its sanitary inspectors, its policemen, and its railroads.

The main entrance to the Yards is at Forty-first and Halsted Streets. As one

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THE ENTRANCE GATES TO THE STOCK-YARDS
One of the main viaducts can be seen through the gate

picks his way between engines and freight cars up to a rather pretentious gateway, the first sign that strikes one's eye is that of the Humane Society. It is the business of this society's officers to see that there is no suffering caused the thousands of animals that are daily brought hither to be slaughtered. As a matter of fact, however, there is little need of such supervision. A steer loses in market value if bruised, and self-interest, if nothing else, prompts the cattlemen to see to it that there is no clubbing or other violence shown any of the animals. I have been told that the Humane Society finds its chief business in caring for the horses used in the ordinary traffic of the Yards.

Once inside the gateway the visitor finds himself upon a well-paved street leading straight to the heart of the packing industry. Four of the large plants are there, and several are near by. One, that of Schwarzschild and Sulzberger, is outside of Packingtown proper.

On either side stretch the acres on acres of pens in which the animals are kept for a half-day or more while resting after their journey on the cars. On this street are banks and the offices of the various commission men to whom the live stock is consigned, as well as the offices for the live stock buyers of the various packing establishments. This street is as lively as the Midway. Cattle are being driven to slaughter-houses outside the Yards, brass bands march to political meetings, mounted men chase panic-stricken steers, millionaires dodge stray loads of timber, and representatives of foreign nations jostle students from veterinary schools. You will see there every sort of person, from the big-hatted cattleman fresh from the plains to some fashionably dressed woman who wants to see the hogs caught up by the "Ferris Wheel," even if a moment later she faints at the sight of their spurting blood. Fastened to the stout wickets of the fence which runs along the north side of the street are the saddle-horses for the cattle-buyers. These horses spend their lives within the Yards and are as terrified at the sight of the automobile that is occasionally allowed to pass the gate as if they lived in some backwoods town; but they will break a path for their riders through a crowd of Texas steers just from the ranges by viciously biting the flanks of some obstructing bull.

On the south are the covered sheds for the sheep and hogs. At its western end the street is flanked by huge buildings and debouches into a little square. There you are in the heart of Chicago's Packingtown.

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I

The Cattle Out-of-Doors

The Stock-yards themselves do not belong to the packers, but to a corporation controlled largely by the Vanderbilts. As has already been said, they cover an area of several hundred acres and consist of a labyrinth of pens reached by narrow alleys. They are crossed and recrossed by huge viaducts along which the cattle are driven to the various slaughter-houses. Most of these pens are open to the air, but those intended for the sheep and hogs are covered. Practically without exception, their floors are made of vitrified brick bedded solidly in sand. They are furnished with long troughs for feeding the animals, as well as tanks for watering them. There is no crowding and, although they are comfortably filled, each animal has room in which to lie down. A force of men is constantly engaged in cleaning the pens, and they are well drained. Altogether, they are probably as well kept as is possible, considering the nature of the use to which they are put.

It is doubtful whether in all the world there is a more remarkable sort of bargaining than that in these yards. There is sufficient competition on the part of the slaughter-houses to cause the price of live stock to vary from a fraction of a cent to several cents a pound. If there be any fixing of the price of beef—a matter about which I do not myself feel competent to pronounce either way—there is sufficient variation in price to enable "scalpers" to make a living by buying and selling cattle after holding them a short time.

In all these sales, which daily run into enormous sums, there are only verbal contracts. The buyer has his cattle weighed and gives the seller a certificate of weight. This certificate is cashed at the Drovers' National or the National Live Stock bank, and the amount is charged to the account of the proper firm.

When the live stock is sent to the slaughter-houses it is not driven through the lanes, but over the viaducts. These viaducts lead by a series of branches to different slaughter-houses and the animals are brought directly to the pens which lead to the killing-rooms. These pens are well constructed and kept as clean as possible. In one packing-house, that of Schwarzschild & Sulzberger, the cattle are driven through a pool of belly-deep water for the purpose of washing them before they reach the killing floor.

A UNITED STATES INSPECTOR EXAMINING PIGS' NECKS FOR TUBERCULOSIS
The pigs are on a moving platform. The pail on the left contains antiseptic

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A GOVERNMENT RETAINING-ROOM
The rejected carcasses may be seen through the window, waiting special inspection

In forcing the cattle into the "knocking pens," science has been introduced in novel fashion. A metal rod attached to an overhead trolley gives a slight electric shock to a recalcitrant steer and thus replaces the olden-time goad which was liable to injure the hides.

Before each batch of animals has been finally sold and weighed, it is visited by a state inspector, who makes the ante-mortem examination. These inspectors cull out those animals which show any sign of actinomycosis, or lumpy jaw. Such cattle are removed by the state officials before the herd is sold, and once or twice a week are slaughtered at an official abattoir, that of the Standard Slaughtering Company, under the supervision of federal, state and city officials. If upon post-mortem examination the flesh is found diseased it is tanked and made into fertilizer and low-grade grease. The proceeds from the sale of these rejected animals are distributed by the Live Stock Exchange among the commission houses who have handled them. Animals that pass this first inspection are weighed and sold to some packing establishment. If that establishment be engaged in interstate business, they are again inspected, this time by the federal officials. The inspector places in the ear of each rejected animal a metal tag bearing the words, "U. S. Rejected," as well as a serial number. He sometimes further clips a portion of the hair in order to insure their identification.

The importance of this ante-mortem inspection is very great when it is borne in mind that during the calendar year of 1905 there were rejected 17,891 cattle, 1,243 sheep and 26,138 swine, a considerable portion of which were finally condemned to the tank. The others passed the post-mortem examination, not being found unwholesome.

Those animals found dead on the cars do not enter the Yards, but are sent to the Globe Rendering Company, Globe, Indiana, where their carcasses are made into low-grade grease and fertilizer.

II

The Process of Slaughtering Animals

A slaughter-house at the best is not an attractive place, particularly where the number of animals slaughtered during the course of a day runs into the thousands. But so far as I could judge after careful and close inspection of a number of the killing beds, there is nothing attending the process of slaughtering that threatens the healthfulness of the food.

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The packing-houses are all built upon the same general plan. The killing-rooms are on the top floors and are well lighted by windows as well as by electricity. Their walls are brick and in the newer buildings are faced with concrete to the height of eight or ten feet. The killing beds are of vitrified brick or concrete and are thoroughly cleansed with hot water and rubber scrapers as soon as the killing is complete. It is, of course, not a pleasant spectacle to see a great steer that has been stunned by a blow on the head come tumbling out from the tilted floor of the knocking pen, and be strung up by one leg while his throat is cut and a workman catches the torrent of blood in a pail; but there is nothing insanitary in the process. Like a good many other sentimentally unpleasant processes it is necessary if men and women are to eat beef. So far as one can see, real care is taken that the beef carcass, while it is being opened, is so placed on the brick floor and is so handled that the hide rather than the flesh touches the floor. After these first steps in the process, it is caught up on chains and the meat never once touches the floor.

The hogs, immediately after being bled, reach the "headers" after having been run through a tank of boiling water intended to loosen the hair, but which also must act to some extent as a means of sterilization. The odors accompanying this bath are not agreeable, but, in the large abattoirs, the rooms are very high posted and are in some cases furnished with strong forced drafts. So far as I could learn there is nothing necessarily injurious in these odors. In all slaughtering processes, odors, like sentiment, are no measure of sanitary deficiency, provided only they come from the process and not from insanitary conditions. The odor of decaying flesh is one never to be confused with other odors, and that I never once detected in any of the packing-houses, either during or after working hours.

III

The Government's Inspection

The more one studies the conduct of a slaughtering-house the more convinced does he become that the government inspection is genuine and efficient. Altogether there are at the present time in Chicago something like 300 government officials, including both veterinary and meat inspectors and "taggers," engaged in post-mortem inspection. The method in this process is the same in all packing-houses.

At first sight it seems as if it would be impossible for one man to examine carefully from 300 to 700 hogs an hour. As a matter of fact, however, so thoroughly organized is the work that, after having watched the process in a number of houses during both small and large runs of animals, I am convinced that the inspection is even more thorough than would be possible if one inspector had charge of overseeing more processes in a fewer number of animals. It, like the work of the packing-house employees, is so thoroughly systematized as never to appear hurried.

These government inspectors do not wear a uniform, and until one is accustomed to looking for the small metal badges on their blouses they are not readily recognized. In fact, some of the so-called investigators of Packingtown have apparently mistaken the special policemen who stand on the killing beds for the inspectors. It is no wonder, therefore, that the description of their activity is somewhat disconcerting.

I had opportunity both with my bacteriological friends and by myself to observe and talk with a number of these inspectors. We found them men of intelligence, under civil service appointment, paid salaries from $1,400 up, and subject to shifting every few months or oftener among the various houses. Opportunity for connivance among them, as well as the likelihood of graft or corruption, is so highly improbable as to be negligible. So far as I could discover in my conversations with influential representatives of the packing industry, the packers themselves are desirous that this inspection should be thorough and real. There is, of course, a loss* upon carcasses which are condemned to the tank, and I

* The extent of the rejection by government inspectors may be seen from a statement made to me by one of the largest packing-houses — that the depreciation in price realized for animals turned into fertilizer and similar uses on animals condemned and rejected by the government, figured in dollars per annum, came to something like the round figure of $400,000 per annum.

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THE KILLING-BEDS

The United States inspector can be seen, in the center of the picture, carrying on his work. It will be noticed that no portion of the meat touches the floor

was told that, under the older laws, before the present system of inspection was so thoroughly established, an over-zealous beefhouse superintendent did once attempt to reduce the number of condemnations by bribing the inspector. He was, however, promptly indicted for the offense. Under the new law, such over-zealous action would be contrary to the interests of any packer. This is particularly true of the great packers where the loss by tanking is spread over a larger total of business.

After once the inspector on the beef-killing bed has been recognized, his method is perfectly clear. As soon as the animal was opened he felt of its viscera. As a trained veterinary he is thus immediately able to discover any sign of tuberculosis. In case the animal is found

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to be diseased, the carcass, after being cleaned, is switched on to a special overhead track and is sent to the government retaining-room or, as is popularly known, "the jail." This room is kept locked, the government inspector having the only key. After careful inspection, the third (or fourth) it will be recalled, to which the animal has been subjected, the meat is either passed, or condemned and sent to the rendering tank, the government inspector seeing that it reaches its destination.

All beef which is not thus found diseased is indelibly marked in ten or fourteen places, "U. S. Inspected and Passed," with the abattoir number, and is then sent to the cooling-room.

How necessary this post-mortem examination is can be illustrated by one of the numerous incidents related to me. At the International Live Stock Exposition, a herd of cows which had won the blue ribbon was purchased by Swift & Co. and sent to the abattoir. The owner stood by as the animals were slaughtered. As one of them, a young heifer, came from the knocking-pen, the breeder remarked,

"That creature is exactly eighteen months old at 5 o'clock this morning."

His remark indicated the care with which she had been raised. She had won the blue ribbon in the Live Stock Show. Yet, when the inspector came to examine her organs, she was found to be thoroughly infected with tuberculosis, and was sent to the tank to be made into fertilizer. One hates to think what happens when such animals are killed and dressed in uninspected houses.

The inspection of hogs is far more important than that of beef creatures, as the ante-mortem examination is less likely to disclose serious trouble, and hogs are liable to a number of communicable internal diseases.

There are three or four inspectors in all hog-dressing rooms. The first inspector sits where every hog passes him just after it has been scraped and the head has been all but cut from the body. This first or "head" inspector examines with his fingers, and often by sectioning with a knife, the cervical lymph glands of every carcass. The importance of this inspection is shown by the fact that 98 per cent of all tubercular trouble in hogs is discovered by it. In case the inspector finds anything suspicious he marks the carcass with a red tag, or if the hog is to be sent through a cleaning machine, with a large indelible cross on its side. Hogs thus marked are sent into the retaining room where they are examined by another inspector who makes a careful sectional examination of the glands. If this inspector finds evidence of disease, the viscera, and, if need be, the entire animal is sent to the rendering tank under the supervision of the inspector who sees to it that the condemned sections are actually put into the tank where such meat is made into grease and fertilizer.

Such animals as do not disclose any disease in their cervical glands pass down the line of dressers, and their viscera, after being removed, pass before another inspector, who examines each set with his hand, and in case there is any disease discovered he tags the carcass, attaches the viscera to it, and it is then subject to another and final examination. If this examination discloses the need, it is sent to the condemned tank.

Thus all hogs are subject not only to one ante-mortem but to at least two, and if in any degree questionable, three post-mortem examinations. There formerly was also a microscopic inspection of hog products for the benefit of the German trade. This, however, no longer exists, as the commercial conditions do not at present demand it.

The inspection of sheep is similar to that of the beef.

This brief description will answer the question as to whether the inspectors do actually inspect. That they do will be the opinion of any man who will take the pains to stand by them and watch the care as well as the skill with which their work is performed. Although this inspection dates back to the law of 1891, it is now better correlated with other and new forms of supervision. I have a larger confidence in the general healthfulness of meat products to-day than I had before my detailed study of the situation. And what is more, I have a larger respect for the young men who, in none too comfortable surroundings, sit by the constant stream of slaughtered animals and examine them in my behalf. I would not

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take their places but I would not have them abandon their posts!

Since the law of 1906 went into effect, however, the work of inspection does not stop in the killing-room. It extends throughout the entire process of preparing meat for market. Every step in the packing process and every department of the packing-houses has its inspector, who not only keeps track of the animals as they are slaughtered, but also of the meat after it has been prepared for various food products. A somewhat painstaking examination of the system of checks between the inspectors of different departments showed that there is no probability, if indeed possibility, of any condemned meat reaching the consumer. Of that any person who eats meat products marked "U. S. Inspected" may be sure.

The inspection extends to the "condemned" trucks and tanks. While the tank is being filled it is sealed at the bottom. After the steam is turned into it, it is also sealed at the top, and in some houses at the valve where the grease could be withdrawn. To satisfy myself as to this matter I examined a tank in which the condemned meat is rendered. There was no connection between the tanks containing the material for lard and the great tierce for the non-edible grease coming from the condemned tank. Together with a lawyer friend who accompanied me, I found my way through lower darkness to see whether or not the seal was, as stated, on the valve. It was there.

MANICURING BOOTH (ARMOUR & COMPANY)

Here the hands of all girls employed in packing meat by hand receive regular attention, and are kept in perfect condition. In practically all the packing process except that of chipped beef, the food is put into the cans by machinery, and is not touched by the hands of the workers

A UNITED STATES MEAT INSPECTOR

This flash-light photograph shows the inspector in his working-clothes. The badge worn is similar to that worn by each of the government's inspectors in Packingtown

Further than this, the government requires that the pipes which carry the edible and non-edible melted fat shall be distinguished by being painted different colors.

Nor does the inspection stop with that which the official himself may see. Dr. Bennett, the inspector in charge, is in constant receipt of anonymous letters as well as those from responsible parties, charging abuses in the various plants. He tells me that he invariably investigates

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these charges but has yet to discover a single instance in which a gross abuse has been found. Many of these charges are probably spitework or the product of gossip which, when traced to its source, fails to deserve serious attention. My own experience on a smaller scale has been the same. For the past few weeks I have been told a variety of stories, some of which I have investigated as best I could, only to be convinced that they are the outcome of the ordinary source of investigative sensations: "two men talking on a car."

In this connection it should be said that from the point of view of legislation the meat business has two imperative needs:

First: Some sort of unification and equalization of the Pure Food laws of the various states. At present these laws do in the main agree with the federal law of 1906, but have their own peculiarities which sometimes make it impossible for thoroughly reliable goods packed and branded for one state to be sold in another.

The second need is for the enforcement of an inspection as rigid as that of the federal government, in plants that are not doing interstate business. As it is now, plants that are shipping any portion of their product out of their own states have every ounce of their product, no matter for what market intended, inspected by federal officials. Thus the local trade of these houses is as well protected as is the interstate. In plants, however, as supply only the state or city in which they are located this inspection does not exist and their products are subject to a far less reliable examination by local officials. The inhabitants of other states are protected from such products by the inability of the railroads to accept any meat for interstate transportation which does not bear the certificate or seal of federal officials. But the local market is at the mercy of an uninspected slaughter-house. The conditions in these houses, as any one who has ever visited them can testify, are liable to be in the highest degree insanitary. For their own good these houses should seek this more rigid inspection. The present situation makes it safer to buy of establishments engaged in interstate trade.

IV

The Cleanliness of Packingtown

Whatever may have been the condition of the pens in Packingtown in former days, as has already been said, they are to-day as clean as the use to which they are subjected will permit. They are really barnyards. Their brick bottoms are practically impervious to water and their drainage is effective. The streets of Packingtown also are now being repaved with granite blocks and granolithic concrete. Indeed these streets would bear comparison with any streets of Chicago, and this comparison means more to-day than it would have done a few years ago.

The killing-beds are, of course, during use, slippery with blood and dotted with bits of fat and other portions of the animal, but men are constantly cleaning them with rubber "squeegees" or brushes, and all water runs freely through channels into which the floor is drained. Whatever solid material goes into these drains is collected in a catch-basin and sent to the fertilizer factory. The trucks in which the meat has been carried, after being used are immersed daily in a tank of boiling lye or are thoroughly rinsed with scalding water. At the end of each day's work the floors throughout all the packing-houses are thoroughly washed with hot water, sent at high pressure through a three-inch hose, and scraped. After such treatment they are as clean as a kitchen floor on Saturday night. The tables, after being scalded and scraped, are thoroughly salted. I made it a practice to examine these tables carefully and could detect no unpleasant odor. They were as clean as the top of a serving table. In one house I saw workmen trimming the inside of one of the wood meat carts with an adz in order to remove the slivers of wood to which the bits of meat might attach.

Throughout the cutting and trimming-rooms, as well as in the ham and curing-rooms, the government inspectors are constantly watching for anything that may threaten cleanliness. In case a piece of meat falls to the floor it is their business to see that it is either properly cleansed or sent to the "condemned" tank. Hogs which fall from the overhead rail, as they sometimes do fall, are

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immediately picked up and switched off from the ordinary procession of their fellows and are once more washed. I saw three such hogs switched off in the hog room of Armour & Co., waiting to be cleaned.

PACKING BEEF TONGUES

In Morris & Company's packing-house. On the right of the picture is seen the row of tongues which pass on down the tables into the cans. On the extreme left is shown the filling and soldering of the cans

As a matter of some interest it might be added that all beef carcasses are subject to a careful scrubbing with hot water. Sometimes this water is applied by a hose attached to a long-handled brush. In the Armour and Morris plants the side of beef moves through a shower-bath of hot water between rapidly revolving brushes. If this process proves successful the other plants will promptly adopt it. In no case did I see beef washed with water from a pail. The cloths with which the beef "sides" are wiped are constantly being sterilized in hot water. It would be difficult to enforce a method of dressing more cleanly than that now in operation.

Undoubtedly the most disagreeable rooms in the packing establishments are those in which the intestines and the casings are trimmed and cleaned. The ordinary visitor may smell them but he does not see them. In most cases these rooms have little natural light and the steam which arises from the tubs has a very disagreeable odor. They certainly could and ought to be better ventilated. Indeed, one has already been rebuilt in a beef and another in a hog abattoir. But there is no ground for believing that the workman or the meat is exposed to tubercular infection in these rooms. The animals infected with tuberculosis do not reach this department, but, as has already been described, go to the rendering tank. In any case the floor and the walls are so moist that there is no liability of germs being given off into the air. The general tendency in all packing-houses is now to lay asphalt or brick floors in these rooms, and so far as I have observed, although they are very wet, they are being constantly cleaned by men with rubber brushes. I observed one or two instances of carelessness on the part of employees in these rooms, but that portion of the meat product which was affected by their acts was subsequently sent through a series of cleansing processes or put into the tank.

The sausage-rooms arouse a popular interest that borders on suspicion. It is hard to forget the jokes and the gossip which one hears about their product. Here again, however, whatever apprehension one has is largely dissipated. The

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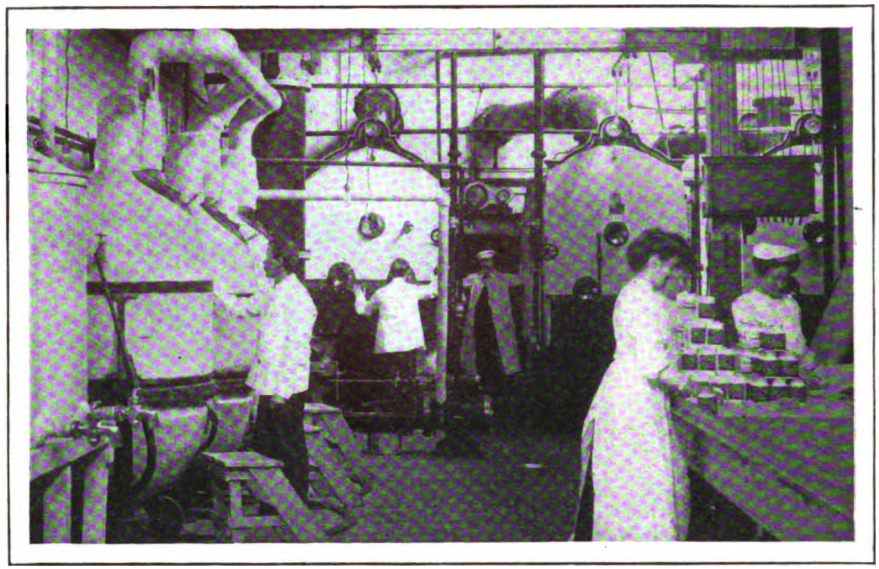

MAKING EXTRACT OF BEEF
In Libby, McNeill & Libby's establishment

machinery is scrupulously neat. All meat that comes into the sausage-room comes with a memorandum of the inspector of another department in the same establishment, or in case it comes from another packing-house it must come either in a car sealed and opened by a government inspector or in barrels bearing an inspector's stamp. All sausage meat has passed an inspection before it comes to the cutting room. Scraps of meat which fall to the floor are cleaned up by the "squeegee" man under the direction of the inspector and sent to the "condemned" tank. These precautions are largely the result of the meat inspection law of 1906.

The canning-rooms are uniformly well lighted and dry. The older buildings have been thoroughly renovated while the new building now being erected by Libby, McNeill & Libby will be one of the finest in the country. A hospital might covet it. Of reënforced concrete construction its floors are concrete, its walls and pillars are faced with white tiled brick, the corners are curved tile, and the ceilings are covered with an enamel impervious to acids and moisture. The young women at the canning tables are everywhere dressed in clean uniforms and caps.

Decided improvements have been made in the sanitary arrangements of Packingtown. I was told that Armour & Co. have spent $60,000 and "S. and S." Co. $100,000 in such improvements. Many recently installed lavatories and toilets are to be seen through other plants, particularly that of Swift & Co. The water-closets are always separated from the working-rooms by at least two doors and in the ordinary type have an abundance of running water. In some establishments, particularly in those departments where the product is given its final form, the sanitary arrangements are a model of their sort. Many such toilet rooms have attendants whose business it is to see that employees wash their hands before returning to work. This duty is enforced by signs posted throughout the buildings. The locker-rooms are clean and without more odors than locker-rooms usually have. They are furnished with well-ventilated iron lockers. The dressing-rooms in the new North House of Swift & Co. are models of their class. They are on each floor and a shower bath is attached to each room. The "S. and S." Co., whose entire plant is only five years old, has installed shower baths in its general locker-rooms. Throughout the Swift and Armour, and in the "S. and S." and Morris plants, are to be seen wash-bowls in the killing and allied rooms. The Morris Company state that their shower baths date from 1904.

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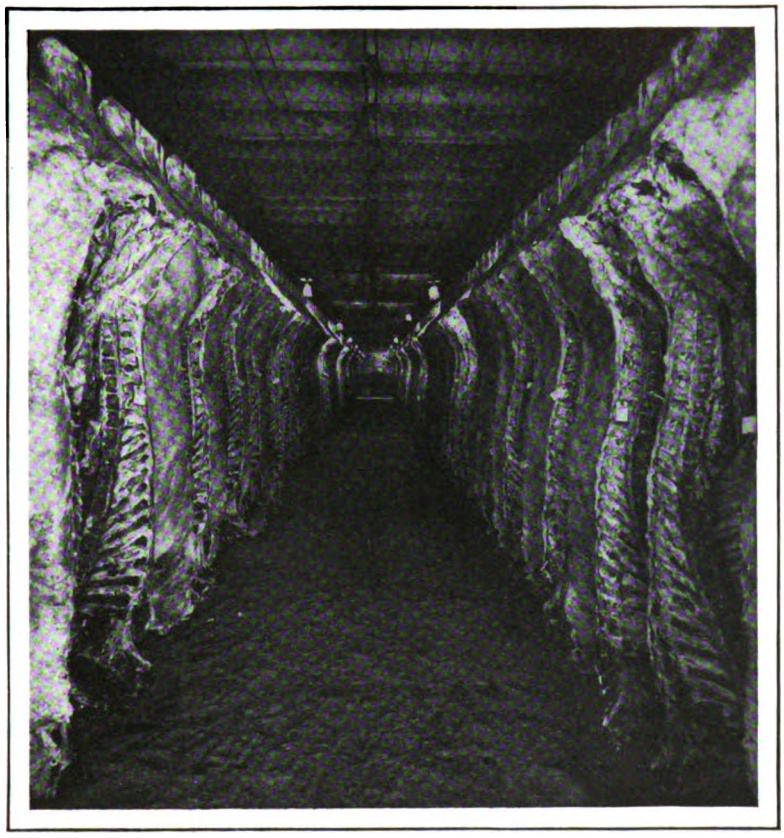
Signs are numerous and sufficiently explicit to be worth copying:

Expectorating on floors, loading platforms or refrigerator car floors is forbidden and any violation of this order will be cause for punishment.

No excuse for dirty garments. You can get them washed, free of charge, by checking them in laundry office.



THE BEEF-COOLING ROOM
The floor is covered with clean sawdust

Foremen must see that their department is kept clean.

Employees must wash their hands before going to work in the morning, again before going to work in the afternoon and always after using closets.

Employees must not wear their aprons in the toilet room. Leave them at your work-bench.

So far as the personal cleanliness of the working force is concerned, it can hardly be expected that on the killing beds and in the casing-rooms there should be no discoloring of the aprons and hands. The leather aprons particularly look dirty after they have been cleaned. Some attempt has been made to use Japanese waterproof paper aprons but it has not proved successful. In the ham room of one establishment the following notice is prominently posted:

All yellow aprons are to be washed at the end of each day's business in 7 house yard. This is to be strictly followed. Frocks or jumpers will be washed as often as needed, same to be taken to laundry office at 5th floor of smoke house, where they can be had by calling for them at from 7 to 8 and 11 to 12 A.M. All frocks or jumpers will have owner's check number marked under the collar.

And in other portions of the workroom is this notice:

Employees must have clean clothes on each morning before they start to work. Any employee reporting for work who has not complied with the above will be sent home.

Employees now commonly wear washable uniforms. The government inspector compels a change of clothes whenever necessary.

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Wherever the canning is done by hand, as in the chipped-beef room, the cleanliness of the operatives is noteworthy. I mentioned the appearance of the girls' hands in the Armour plant and was immediately shown one reason for their cleanliness in the person of a manicurist whose business it is to manicure the hands of the girls. In Libby, McNeill & Libby's canning-rooms three manicurists are employed for the girls and men who handle chipped beef and other products which are packed by hand and may be eaten without further cooking. The effect of this manicuring is something more than good advertising. It has resulted in a new pride on the part of the employees, especially of the girls, in the appearance of their hands.

I think I should state also that I have watched the hands of hundreds of operatives in all departments of the packing industry and in no case did I see a sore. This does not, of course, prove that there are no employees working with injured hands, but it at least shows that such a case is highly infrequent. The reason for this is to be seen in the excellent medical oversight established in all the large plants. Whenever a foreman observes a workman cut his hand or otherwise injure it even in the slightest way, he orders him at once to the doctor attached to the establishment. In the largest plants such cases may amount to ten a day, but they are ordinarily about half that number. The doctor's office is thoroughly equipped with proper operating apparatus and medicines and in some cases has a trained nurse in attendance.

The problem of cleanliness, however, is a much more difficult one than the casual visitor to Packingtown can appreciate. It is not even simply one of carelessness on the part of thousands of workmen. As Dr. Deitwich, the U. S. traveling inspector, put it to me, "It is a problem of getting material that can be cleaned." The matter of floors is regarded by the packers as the greatest mechanical problem the industry now faces. Wood is admittedly out of the question. Bricks, while in other ways satisfactory, are rough. No concrete has yet been found which will not disintegrate in floors that are used by trucks. Asphalt is on the whole giving good satisfaction in rooms that are cold and where little grease falls upon the floor; but where these conditions are not established it softens and will last but a few months.

Similarly in the case of aprons. The unsuccessful experiments with Japanese paper aprons have already been mentioned. For the rougher work, leather makes the best apron, but it can never be made to look clean however much it is washed. Aprons made of oil-cloth at the present time best meet the requirements but they have not the durability of leather.

The problem of material for uniforms seems to be pretty satisfactorily answered.

The packers are now experimenting with proper material for cutting-tables and for meat trucks. In the former case hard maple is replacing other woods, but several of the plants are experimenting with other material, such as glass, concrete and boiler steel. In these latter cases the cutting is done on a hardwood board. At the present time the trucks are made of wood and the inspecting regulation provides that they are to be condemned whenever they appear to be badly worn or otherwise unfit for use. Probably wood will remain the best material for trucks, although several houses are now experimenting with those made of galvanized iron and porcelain-lined steel.

As a fact for the curious I may add that flies seldom come into the rooms of the packing-houses of Chicago, and despite my search I did not see a rat or a trace of a rat. They are doubtless there for I am told that some plants have their ratkillers, and that watchmen are rewarded for every rat they kill. Most establishments also have a rather large garrison of cats.

V

The Packers and the Meat Inspection Law

The chief effects of the Meat Inspection Law of 1906 have been the stimulating of the packers to a larger carefulness in matters of cleanliness, and the establishment of a system of efficient inspection throughout the various departments. You will still hear stories of carelessness on the part of employees, but when these

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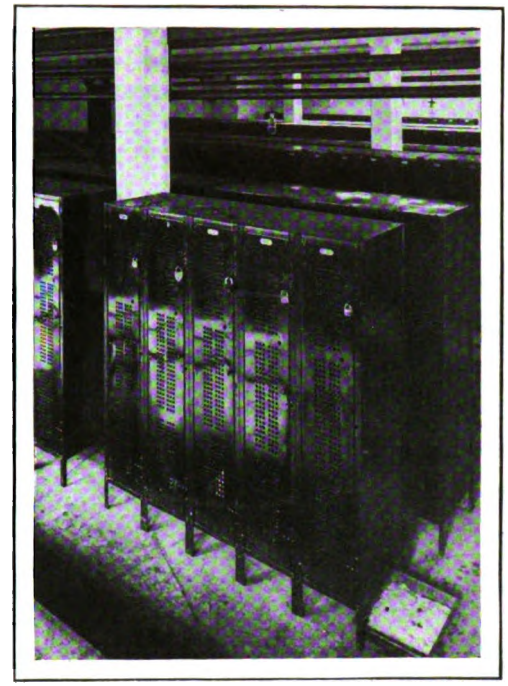
are run down it is my opinion that they will generally be found to be the echoes of the gossip about the situation as it is believed to have existed prior to 1906.

To a considerable extent, improvements now to be seen in Packingtown were planned before the government's investigation of the plants. Thus the fine hog house of Armour & Co. as well as the light and airy canning-rooms, were built in October, 1905, and were on paper in 1904. Among the recent improvements particularly noticeable, in addition to the sanitary arrangements, are the brick and asphalt floors which are now going into all the big packing-houses and make possible a higher degree of cleanliness, new buildings, such as those to which reference has already been made, and the fine north beef house now completed and the new hog house soon to be erected by Swift & Co. The packers, I should add, insist that these improvements are not due primarily to the recent agitation, but are simply the outcome of the general process of improvement which the rapid growth of the industry has made possible and imperative.

So far as I can discover at the present time there is no friction between the inspection as carried on by the government and by the city. In the middle of 1906 some such disturbance arose, the city inspector claiming to have condemned meat which had been passed by the government inspector. This point is covered pretty fully in the Mohler Report of June, 1906, and is a striking illustration of the difference between the methods of experts and those of the creatures of local politics. One "Fish" Murray, an appointee of Mayor Dunne, and who is now endeavoring by injunction to prevent the appointment of his successor, a young doctor who has passed the civil service examination, accompanied by a reporter recently condemned, on general principles, 400,000 pounds of meat in one of the packing-houses. When actual inspection was made, the total amount condemned was 220 pounds out of the entire amount.

In this connection it is interesting to note that there has recently been established, on the part of Swift & Co., a system of confidential sanitary inspection. Twice a month all their plants throughout the country are inspected by one of their men who makes a report directly to the president, Mr. Louis F. Swift. I was given an opportunity to read these reports and they gave every evidence of being made in good faith, and I am assured that such matters as require attention are immediately provided for.



ONE OF THE NEW DRESSING-ROOMS

This particular picture is of the room in one of Swift's houses, but very similar arrangements are to be found in Armour's, Libby, McNeill & Libby's, Morris's and S. & S. Company's

VI

General Conclusions

Some months ago a Georgia editor visited Packingtown. At luncheon he was observed to eat freely of steak. After the meal he said:

"I suppose I ought to make an explanation of what may appear my excessive appetite, but the fact is, this is the first time I have eaten meat for five weeks."

After my study of Packingtown, in which I think I can be fairly said to have looked more carefully at the disagreeable than at the agreeable parts of the packing industry, I appreciate the Georgian's conversion.

There are undoubtedly improvements

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still to be made, but I am convinced both that the great packing-houses have taken the law of 1906 in good faith; and also that they are more regardful for the welfare of their employees than ever before.

The packing industry is the product of an evolution and is still in the process of

THE CAFE FOR THE EMPLOYEES
At Swift & Company's establishment

evolution. So rapid have been the changes in machinery and in methods that it is probably true, as the packers say, that the growth of the business and of improvements would have made it impossible to erect permanent buildings in the past. For certain departments, however, it is now possible to erect buildings more nearly approaching the ideal. This is especially true of the canning factories and the sausage-rooms. The killing-beds, while now thoroughly sanitary, will some day have their entire walls faced with cement and supplied with overhead beams which can be more easily washed by the scalding water which is now so thoroughly applied to the floors. The rooms in which the casings are made will be ventilated. The pickling-rooms must of necessity be damp, but it can only be a matter of time before some means is discovered by which the men who work in them are given less taxing accommodations. It is hard to see how any radical improvements could be made in the curing and refrigerator rooms.

But when these improvements are carried out the meat products will be no more wholesome than they are to-day.

The field in which the next really great improvements will be made is undoubtedly that of the welfare of the employee. Reference has already been made to the extensive improvements noticeable in all the plants in the shape of locker-rooms and toilets. The next step will be to establish better conditions under which the trying work of Packingtown is conducted. Nelson Morris & Co. already have a café and rooms where their employees in all departments can eat their luncheoon. Libby, McNeill & Libby have such a room for their girls. Swift & Co., besides their great restaurant for their office help, have cafés in various parts of their plant and are considering the establishment of lunch rooms for all departments.

And finally. Three things stand out most clearly in my mind as characterizing the Packingtown of to-day: The extraordinary organization of the meat industry; the evident determination of every packing plant to be cleanly; and possibly most of all, the vicarious sacrifice demanded by modern industry. Gratitude to the thousands of men who are to-day doing work which must be done if society is to eat, but which, even under the most ideal circumstances, must be disagreeable, has grown upon me as I have visited the killing-beds and the casing-room, the pickling-cellars and the numberless other departments. And in the midst of these thousands I find myself thinking most of the silent inspectors, going from animal to animal or sitting before the all but ceaseless stream of bodies and viscera, as, true soldiers of the common weal, they protect a nation and a world from evils from which otherwise there would be small chance of escape.

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PATRIOTS WHO ARE NOT SOLDIERS

I.—FREDERICK J. FURNIVALL

(*Portrait on page 450*)

BY

FREDERICK MORGAN PADELFORD

PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE, THE UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON

IT was not possible to refrain from watching the little man who sat at the opposite desk. He had entered the manuscript room of the museum with a step so quick and eager that one naturally looked up from one's work. He took the nearest seat, called for a manuscript, unrolled a large bundle of proof, and went at the correcting of it with the zeal of a young scholar who has received his first galleys. His eye was bright and piercing, and his glance traveled from manuscript to proof and from proof to manuscript with quick, keen regularity. It was like watching a well-trained field dog at his work. He appeared alert, but not nervous.

A Middle English manuscript could not compete with this man in interest, and I found my eyes frequently traveling across the table. At first I was fearful that he would detect my curiosity, but only twice in the hour and a half that he was there did he raise his eyes — that was to glance at the clock. At 4:30 he abruptly arose, jammed the proof into a big sidepocket, returned the manuscript, and left with the same elastic step with which he had entered, his legs hurrying after his eager head as if fearing to be left behind.

His appearance had been as striking as his manner of work. He was short and slightly stooped. His color was high and his forehead and neck showed evidence of recent sunburn, a contrast to the pale, dull-eyed elderly men about him. He wore a bright red Ascot tie, and from his upper coat-pocket protruded a large silk handkerchief of a magenta shade.

My reflections were interrupted by the arrival of the friend who had arranged to take me to tea to meet Dr. Frederick Furnivall, the editor of the Early English Text Society's publications. We went to the unassuming restaurant on Oxford Street where this eminent scholar is at home to his friends every afternoon, and ascended to the quiet room on the second floor. But Dr. Furnivall had not arrived. This was evidently a cause of anxiety to the maids, for I overheard them saying, "Where can the Doctor be? He is never so late as this. Do you suppose he is ill?" But their questions were quickly answered, for there was a light step on the stair, and then — the man who had set me to guessing.

There was the expected cheery word for each of the girls, and then he approached our table with hand extended in welcome, not waiting for an introduction, and the words, "And how are all my dear friends in America?" That first glance revealed the unusual character of his eyes; I have never seen others like them — eyes lighted with the spirit of youth, and in which shrewdness and benignity temper each other. Youthfulness, keenness, humanism, such is Dr. Furnivall.

I knew that as president of the Browning Society he had done more than any other Englishman to gain Browning a hearing among his countrymen, and I was impatient to hear what he would say about the poet.

"Ah, dear old fellow; dear old boy! if he could only have lived to know how much you Americans love him!" And

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then he told the story of the founding of the society, of Tennyson's cold refusal to be its president or in any way to assist it, of his own reluctant acceptance of the office, of Browning's honest and simple acquiescence in the movement, and of the gradual change in attitude toward the poetry. Browning, it seems, was criticized for not discouraging the existence of the society.

"It is not for me to tell people how they shall or shall not spend their time," he replied, "and besides, my books formerly did not sell and now they are bringing in the ducats. You can't expect me to disapprove of that, can you?"

Dr. Furnivall often visited Browning of a Saturday afternoon to discuss difficult lines in the poems, and Browning would often show memorials of his wife, as the little work-table at which she sewed, with the needles and thimble just as she had left them, a little table that had come to be, as it were, the poet's shrine.

It was a short and delightful hour, and at its close Dr. Furnivall gave an urgent invitation to take tea some Sunday afternoon with his sculling club at their house near the Hammersmith bridge. A few Sundays later I found myself in the large hall of the clubhouse. The room was filled with a hundred happy young men and women. Some were chatting in animated little groups; others were making sandwiches; and still others were preparing tea at the great fireplace, the homelike, expectant odor permeating the room.

"No, the Doctor was just in from his boat, and was taking his cold shower, but he would be up presently." It was a raw, foggy afternoon.

"But he hasn't been sculling to-day, has he?"

"Oh, yes, he has just done his fourteen miles; that's his minimum. If he has too much steam aboard he makes it twenty, but that's almost too much for the rest of us, and unless he goes alone he usually has to content himself with the shorter spin."

Eighty-two years of age, and sculling fourteen miles every Sunday! Now I began to understand the color in his cheeks.

Presently he appeared, radiant as a Homeric youth. He brushed his way through the group that instantly gathered around him, and made for the head of the table, which was a signal to the feasters to "fall to." Every one within reach of his voice was subject to his jokes; the arrows of his wit flew here and there, and the whole company caught the contagion of his mirth. Supper over, there was singing, and later dancing; Dr. Furnivall was glowing with happiness.

At ten the company broke up, and I walked to the train with my host, the youngest and gayest of them all. His mind and heart were full of the club.

"I can't last many years longer at the most, and I want them to incorporate and start to buy the clubhouse, so that the club won't go to smash when I do."

Further acquaintance left little doubt that the club, the last of his many humanitarian enterprises, now holds first place among his many interests. He organized it, as he said, "to fight the public house and the dance hall, and to give young men and women an opportunity for exercise and for healthy social life. The fight in London is a fearful one, and I felt that I must do something to help boys and girls to be good and happy." Many of the male members are from the Working Men's College, a project that was launched by Dr. Furnivall, Ruskin, Frederick Denison Maurice, Thomas Hughes, and other men of advanced social ideas over half a century ago, and that is now one of the best equipped institutions in London. A recent reprint of a volume of the "Early English Texts" bears naive testimony to the place that the sculling club holds in Dr. Furnivall's heart: "My young friend, Jack Munro, of the Working Men's College and the Furnivall Sculling Club, has kindly added the much-needed 'Contents' to this volume — for all which we are much indebted to him."

Dr. Furnivall's known love for young people and his generous interest in their affairs draws about him young students of English philology from the Continent and from America, and he is seldom seen without some member of this bodyguard. In the work of these young men he takes keen pleasure, and they quickly find themselves the disciples of a

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master whose greatest happiness is to serve.

In his love of sports Dr. Furnivall is a true Englishman, and apparently he is prouder of the fact that his son was at one time the champion bicyclist of the world than that he has performed a surgical operation novel in the annals of the profession. As expressive of his fullness of physical life, I may mention that I have never seen Dr. Furnivall walk up or down stairs; he always runs.

A few evenings after this first visit to the club, I saw this interesting boy of eighty-two in another capacity. He was presiding at a meeting of the London Shakespeare Society, of which he is president. The whole gathering took its key from his spirit. Before introducing the speaker of the evening, Professor Schick of Munich, he reviewed with much enthusiasm the findings of the most recent Shakespeare research. It is not surprising that Dr. Furnivall loves Shakespeare and has edited the plays so well, for he is essentially an Elizabethan. His youthfulness and lightheartedness, his sustained enthusiasm, his animated cosmopolitanism, his liberation from convention, his fondness for bright, strong colors, his humanism, the fluidity of his life, his closeness to nature, are the characteristics of Elizabethan, more than of Victorian, England.

Among some of his countrymen Dr. Furnivall bears the reputation of being testy and irascible. This is because of his frank and vehement opposition to sham or insincerity of any kind. For example, he never could forgive Sir Henry Irving for remodeling the latter part of "The Merchant of Venice" in order to make the character of Shylock more prominent, for he regarded the changes as a dishonor to Shakespeare and as prompted by condemnable selfishness. He is also angered by any display of flunkeyism on the part of men whose intellectuality should make them superior to it. Accordingly, he warmly opposed granting the honor of the presidency of the British Academy to a titled man *because* of his title. In reality he is one of the gentlest of men; but what man who loves democracy and who has severe standards in art can or ought to avoid giving offense when he sees his ideals defied in high places?

It is as editor of the Early English Text Society that Dr. Furnivall is best known, and will be known as long as the language and literature endure. Only a man of his faith and indomitable courage, I might perhaps add, of his stubbornness, could have persisted in carrying this work of publishing the Old and Middle English literature through two hundred and forty volumes, despite an indifferent public and fortuitous financial support.

Great, however, as Dr. Furnivall is as a scholar, he is greater as a man, and it is as a large-hearted, generous friend that he is most affectionately remembered by every one who has come into sympathetic contact with him.

II.—RICHARD BARTHOLDT

FORMER PRESIDENT OF THE INTER-PARLIAMENTARY UNION FOR PROMOTION OF INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION

(*Portrait on Page 453*)

BY

JEWELL H. AUBERE

WHEN the second Hague Peace Conference meets, two propositions will be considered which will be of more far-reaching importance in their design for permanent world's peace than perhaps any to come before that august tribunal. They are a model international arbitration treaty and a proposed permanent international congress to codify international laws.

The proposals have for their author Mr. Richard Bartholdt, member of the

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House of Representatives of the United States, probably the foremost authority on the present-day peace movement in this country. The model arbitration treaty and the proposal for an international congress to codify international law were put forward by Mr. Bartholdt at the conference of the Inter-Parliamentary Union for the Promotion of International Arbitration held at Brussels in September, 1905. The ideas of the American exponent of peace were adopted by that gathering. It commended to The Hague conference the model treaty. It suggested that The Hague conference of this year should itself become a permanent international congress to meet periodically on its own volition.

The call for the second Hague conference was issued by the Czar of Russia. It is an open secret that it had its origin with Theodore Roosevelt, who first sounded the nations of the world through diplomatic channels, and then gracefully gave way to the Czar, on a hint from his foreign office, so that the world could see that Russia was again identified with the peace movement after her long and bloody struggle. Theodore Roosevelt got his inspiration and suggestion for the second Hague peace conference from the Inter-Parliamentary Union which, at its meeting at St. Louis during the Louisiana Purchase Exposition in 1904, adopted a resolution urging that there be a second conference. That resolution was presented to the President by Mr. Bartholdt, who was president of the Inter-Parliamentary Union of the world and also head of its American Group then, as he is now.

Mr. Bartholdt's model arbitration treaty is designed to include all questions which, by their very nature, must be submitted to arbitration. All other questions which, by inference, nations will only settle through a resort to arms, are to be, first, the subject of investigation by a board of inquiry. The object of the latter provision is to give nations time in which to consider the seriousness of the situation presented, and, like individuals in similar positions, to grow less belligerent.

With international law defined by an authoritative declaration from an international tribunal, Mr. Bartholdt believes it will be the easier enforced. In its collation and deliberate discussion by a learned international body of statesmen, it can but be strengthened. "What now passes under the name of international law is merely a compilation of precedents, opinions, maxims and arguments, not one of which has received the sanction of law by a single parliament," says the leader for peace. He knows, just as the world knows, that every nation places its own interpretation on that vague, nebulous something called "international law," and that interpretation is received by the other powers of the world, with weight and authority in direct proportion to the number of men and guns the interpreting nation can command.

The public, generally, heard little or nothing of Mr. Bartholdt and his participation in the peace movement, until the day in 1903 when the cables brought the information from abroad that at Vienna, single-handed, he had induced the Inter-Parliamentary Union to hold its next meeting in the United States at St. Louis. Even in St. Louis, his numerous and cosmopolitan constituency which had so long known him as their representative in Congress, and a man of studious rather than aggressive temperament, was uninformed as to his prominence and influence in the world peace conferences.

Professor Halsey C. Ives, who was associated with the great fine arts exhibit at the Columbian exposition at Chicago, and in charge of fine arts at the St. Louis exposition, was of his constituency. Professor Ives went abroad soliciting the cooperation of the lovers of art in the Old World in making the art exhibit feature at St. Louis second in importance and excellence to none that had gone before. He reached the Netherlands and, after complying with the necessary formalities, was received by Dr. Kuypers, then Prime Minister. Full of the object of his mission and knowing that he was in the presence of one unusually versed in art, Professor Ives had but awaited the introduction of the subject nearest his heart, to enter upon his most convincing arguments for foreign participation in the art display. He was astonished to be greeted as "a fellow townsman of that great apostle of international peace, Dr. Richard Bartholdt." Instead of descanting

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upon the wonderful art display he found himself answering questions as to the manner, the habits, the personal characteristics, and even personal appearance of his representative in Congress.

Months later, after the exposition was over, the turn of things political brought forward the name of Professor Ives as a possible candidate for Congress in opposition to Mr. Bartholdt. Then Professor Ives gave a dinner at one of the exclusive clubs of his city. In attendance were men of prominence in business and the professions, and sandwiched between these, with deliberate care, were the practical political leaders of the congressional district. As host and toastmaster Professor Ives arose and, with that old maxim about the prophet in his own country as his text, he told of his experience in the Netherlands, following it with the declaration that he proposed to contribute what he could toward seeing that Mr. Bartholdt was appreciated at home for his services to the world as well as to his own constituency.

Mr. Bartholdt laid the foundation for his present interest and prominence almost a quarter of a century ago when, fresh from the fatherland, he applied his old-world education to the duties of a position as editorial writer and foreign news editor of the New York *Staats Zeitung*. As long ago as 1883, he wrote an editorial leader in which, after long and careful study of the subject, he embodied his conclusions as to international arbitration as a practical means of securing the peace of the world. His editor noted the sincerity evinced by the editorial, and complimented him, but said with smiling indulgence that its suggestions were too Utopian for the present century. Then Mr. Bartholdt set about justifying the position he had taken and continued with a series of editorials along the same line, which attracted no little attention. Later, when he changed his field of operations and went to St. Louis, he continued to write of his favorite subject in the St. Louis *Tribune*.

From St. Louis in 1892 he was elected a member of the national House of Representatives. Three years before, he had opportunity to take the first step in actual participation in the deliberations of the international peace body. While traveling in Europe he met a member of the German Reichstag who invited him to go with him to Christiania, Norway, and attend a meeting of the Inter-Parliamentary Union. There was no American group of the Union at that time, but he was invited to become a member and did so. There was but one other American present, Samuel J. Barrows, then a member of Congress.

His great personal triumph came at Vienna in 1903, when, as has already been said, he secured the next meeting of the Union for America in spite of pronounced opposition, and the open declaration of William Randal Cremer, founder of the Union, that his proposal was an attempt to make the meeting of the Union "an adjunct of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition." Successful at Vienna, he returned to the United States to arrange for the welcoming of the gathering in a manner befitting an assemblage of the members of the parliaments of the leading nations of the earth. His first step was to enlist the interest of President Roosevelt, who mentioned the proposed meeting in his message to Congress. Then Mr. Bartholdt agitated the matter of organizing an American group of the Union. In the Members' Corridor of the national House of Representatives, the group was organized with forty-nine members who were either senators or representatives of the Congress of the United States. Mr. Bartholdt was made President of the American group; Mr. Robert F. Broussard, member of Congress from Louisiana, secretary. Through the foreign relations' committee of the two houses, official recognition of the proposed meeting was secured, as well as an appropriation of $50,000 for the entertainment of the visitors.

At the St. Louis meeting in 1904 Mr. Bartholdt was not only retained as head of the American group but was elected president of the Inter-Parliamentary Union of the world. It was at that meeting that the resolution was adopted asking the President of the United States to take the initiative in calling a second Hague conference. Representatives were present from fourteen different countries of Europe, and, including the American Congress, fifteen parliaments of the world. At Brussels in 1905, the proceed-

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ings of the Union were opened by Mr. Bartholdt, as president, and he gave way on that occasion to Sir Philip Stanhope, his successor. At London last year, 1906, he headed the American group and participated in the work of the more important committees.

The object and character of the Inter-Parliamentary Union for the Promotion of International Arbitration has been stated in a paragraph by Mr. Bartholdt: "The Union consists of members of the law-making bodies of the world. Each parliament has a group of members who strive for international arbitration and who use their influence, with their respective governments, to hasten the conclusion of arbitration treaties between the several governments of the world." How the American exponent of peace has accepted the spirit of the organization, in his own relations to the national legislature here, is indicated by the fight he made last year when the naval appropriation bill was up. That measure proposed the construction of a great battle-ship, second in size and power to that of no other fighting machine owned by another nation. It was a direct sequence to the naval activity of other powers and the launching of the English Dreadnaught, then announced to be the largest and most powerful fighting ship afloat.

Mr. Bartholdt proposed an amendment to the bill, providing, "That if, at the second Hague conference, any measure should be adopted for the limitation of the naval forces of the great powers, or for the settlement of international controversies by judicial decision, and by means of arbitration treaties, the secretary of the navy shall have discretion to defer the construction of the ship." He made an able plea for the adoption of his amendment to the naval bill, and this led others to address the House in like vein, notably Mr. Theodore Burton, of Ohio, the author of The Hague resolutions at the St. Louis meeting of the Union. Mr. Burton delivered a speech for peace that held the closest attention of the House and is regarded as one of the ablest deliverances of its kind in the history of the movement.

Mr. Bartholdt and the men intimately associated with the work for the permanent peace of the world say little of disarmament. In the popular mind, the peace movement is usually associated with the talk of the disarmament of the nations of the world, and to many the propagandas are one and the same. Because of the association of these ideas, there is a disposition to consider the workers for peace as impractical Utopian dreamers. Mr. Bartholdt, however, says of the attitude of the international body toward disarmament:

"The International Parliamentary Union has long ago ceased to urge disarmament as an independent proposition. Its members realize that to strive for disarmament means to confound symptom and cause. The war armaments are merely the symptom, while we desire to remove the cause. The friends of peace all realize that as long as there is no agreement between nations to keep the peace, we must be ready for all emergencies. The majority of us do not antagonize the administration's program as long as we have reason to believe that naval expansion is necessary for the national defense. I believe those who urged increased naval power for the United States, if they fully understood our attitude in this connection, would not feel it necessary to belittle and antagonize the peace movement in the defense of their own program.

"I shall vote, if considerations of patriotism demand, if the national safety demands it, for ten or twenty more battle-ships. I shall do it, of course, with all the scorn that is in me, because I abhor the system which makes them necessary. But the peace movement should not be confounded with any movement or any attempt to decrease naval expenses or military expenses here and there. If that movement succeeds, if there be an agreement reached at The Hague in favor of international arbitration, or in favor of some more civilized method by which to settle international difficulties than by war, why, then, the battle-ships we are constructing now, and which other nations have constructed, will become absolutely unnecessary. Each successive appropriation for naval expansion begets another one, and no one can tell when and where the mad rivalry will stop. Evidently it will be carried to that extreme limit where mutual exhaustion and

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general collapse will be the inevitable result. A peace which exacts such sacrifices should not be dignified with that name. In reality it is a state of suspended war, rather than peace, with more characteristics of suspense than peace."

Mr. Bartholdt may be quoted also to show the definite practical work which the Inter-Parliamentary Union has planned for the immediate future.

"The modern peace movement at this time has two definite demands: One is for arbitration treaties between all nations, and the other for an international congress to declare what is to be international law. It is a humiliating confession that the mutual slaughter rule still maintains among nations. It does maintain the same as in medieval times, the same as in the dim ages when the ancestors of men went about on all fours killing and rending. In view of this amazing fact, is it so really chimerical or are we such dreamers and rainbow-chasers, when we demand that governments shall adjust their relations with other governments in accordance with the same civil laws with which they enforce and regulate the conduct of their own citizens? This is all we who are working for international peace ask; nothing more.

"During the last hundred years more than two hundred cases which, under different conditions might have caused war between nations, have been settled by arbitration. In each one of these the judgment of the arbiters at the court which passed upon them was adopted without protest from any one of the interested parties. From this fact I think we can justly claim that the cause of international peace is gaining ground. I will admit, however, that in the absence of international and binding agreements for peace between nations, it is necessary for a nation to be ready for emergencies, and that is the reason why I have never antagonized the naval program."

III.—THE FIGHTING BLOOD OF EVA BOOTH

(*Portrait on page 456*)

BY

HUGH C. WEIR

A PRICE was on her head when Captain Eva Booth of the Salvation Army invaded the aristocratic English watering-places.

"Fifty dollars to the man who will quiet her!" shouted the irate hotel proprietors.

A shower of stones and bricks from the crowd descended on the little band of Army workers, and clubs struck out viciously. Two of the young woman's companions were brought down with ugly wounds. When the melee ended, her body showed sullen bruises, but her voice still rang out stubbornly.

Emphatically the reward had not been earned!

A few weeks later, when Eva Booth left the locality, a crowd that cheered itself hoarse, saw her depart. In a month's span her personality had swept to her support the very men who would have paid to have her knocked senseless.

To-day, still on the sunny side of thirty, she occupies one of the most remarkable positions ever accorded to her sex. As commander of the American Salvation Army, a force forty thousand strong is swayed at her beck.

When you know her, you discover that she seldom dons the Army bonnet, and the wounds of service give you a suggestive reason and a thrilling story. In a dying condition she was taken from the battlefield — the London slums, where a four months' bitter contest had been waged with the forces of the under-world. When she tottered from the hospital ward, recovered from the long wrestle with brain fever, the Army bonnet was the sacrifice she paid to the cause. Its pressure on her throbbing head she could not endure.

An army of strange soldiers, who fight strange battles in strange places, is this organization with the girl commander.

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Half round the world have her campaigns circled. From the London slums to the Canadian wilds, northward to the snows of the Klondike, southward to the Mexican border, from the Atlantic to the Pacific has she dotted her forces. The value of its band instruments alone amounts to the staggering total of $400,000! It has won, and is winning great victories with great labor but with little publicity.

The recent American visit of its founder, the venerable old man of England, General Booth, brought the world upright with a blinking stare, before the plans he calmly checked off on his fingers. With a smiling disregard of his seventy-eight years and the snow of age in his hair and beard, the man who for more than a third of a century has fought the battles of war in times of peace enumerated a list of projects he hopes still to accomplish, which have given even the American public a new sensation. And it is the same fire that is also burning in his fourth daughter, Evangeline, who is so occupied that she seldom finds time to use the last two syllables of her name!

Last year she handled the details of an organization which outrivals the scope of many of the greatest of modern industries. More than one thousand homes and refuges at the four points of the compass are maintained under her supervision. Her energy provides beds for over eleven thousand homeless nightly! Last Christmas, she gave a dinner to more than three hundred thousand destitute in various parts of the country!

Her latest project has been the establishment of a "suicide bureau," following the scope of the plan carried out by her father in England, which has already saved the lives of over three hundred persons planning self-destruction.

And yet without the Booth energy throbbing through her veins, the young woman who directs an army larger than that which George Washington commanded, would have been a poet, a dreamer. She is a musician of more than ordinary talent and can lose herself in the compositions of the old masters. As though the do-and-dare element which has made the name of the Booths famous, however, would not be denied even in her recreations, her favorite pastime is a blood-stirring gallop, and her horse is the kind that — well, if it couldn't show substantial speed it wouldn't belong to Eva Booth! She is far from the "athletic girl" in appearance, however, in spite of these suggestive facts. With her dashing career as a background, you are picturing a young woman of sturdy muscles and a quick, decisive voice:

You find a girl with light, fluffy hair, a pensively shaded, girlish face, white, blue-veined hands, slender, fragile of figure. Yet Eva Booth has lived a life that has swept clean every grain of sensation in her path.

"You are under arrest! You are disturbing the peace!" snarled a policeman, breaking off her first public prayer in the streets of London. She was still in her early 'teens, a slight slip of a girl with no means of resistance, and as the bullying officer tightened his grip on her arm, she was dragged shrinkingly with him.

But the action aroused the sympathies of the rough crowd as a lighted match fires a keg of gunpowder. In an instant the policeman and his prisoner were surrounded, and before the officer could raise his voice he was beaten to the pavement under a shower of fists.

It was the girl prisoner who, forgetting his rough grip and the cell to which he would have dragged her, appealed to the throng in his defense. When the crowd finally retreated, the policeman was groaning with two broken legs and a mass of bruises from head to foot.

For weeks the little girl in the big Army bonnet paid faithful visits to the helpless man in the hospital, and when he was released a warmer friend Eva Booth and her cause could not have found in all England. To this day she receives letters in a rough, sprawling hand, signed simply, "Your policeman."

"Out of my house, or I will have the servants eject you!" thundered a member of Parliament, when the Salvation Army girl sought an audience on behalf of certain legislation at a crisis in the history of the organization. But she did not leave.

"I have come to stay until my business is finished!" she said quietly — and she stayed. Before the eminent M. P. recovered from his amazement she began to state her cause, and to such good effect

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that in the end he invited her to luncheon, argued publicly for her measures, and the turning point in Salvation Army legislation was reached.

Mounted on a dry-goods box so that she could reach the level of her audience, Eva Booth made her first speech to men and women of the gutter, with red, bloated faces and sneering eyes.

"It is worth your life to venture into that neighborhood!" the police argued, when she planned an excursion into the worst section of London.

She said nothing, but the next day a ragged young woman selling matches made her way into the deepest of those scowling haunts of vice. Barred from the neighborhood in her real character, she hid her identity under the rags of the slums and mingled with the people of the under-world as one of themselves.

For months she lived the life of the alleys and the attics, selling packets of matches and crumpled flowers to maintain her disguise — the while ministering to the sick and the dying, filling exhausted larders, giving a helping hand to the fallen, averting angry blows of drunken husbands and fathers. When she announced her real character, so great was the impression she had made that the Salvation Army meeting, in the heart of the most notorious district in London, was packed.

Her reward came in the title that followed her back to her home, "the angel of the slums," and a siege of brain fever that brought her daily to death's door.

A resolute young woman one day appeared at the superintendent's office of one of the most dangerous of the Cornish mines with a request that brought him to his feet in amazement.

"I would like to go down into the shaft to talk to the men," she said quietly. The speaker was Eva Booth.

"Why, even a strong man would hesitate to make the descent," the superintendent cried. "My dear young lady ——"

"I know the risk, and am willing to take it," interrupted his visitor, with a smile. "You will not actually forbid me, surely?"

The superintendent stared — and surrendered.

At the mouth of the mine he made arrangements to accompany her. During the descent a hitch was experienced in the lowering of the basket. The two occupants were hung, swaying in pitch darkness between the top of the shaft and the firm ground, hundreds of feet below. For a moment a frightful death hovered before them.

Of a sudden the girl's voice came clear and sweet in the words of the old, old hymn, "Nearer, My God, to Thee, Nearer to Thee!"

There was not a tremor in the tones. When the rope ran smoothly again and the basket reached the bottom, the superintendent was her first convert. And in the shadowy mine corridors, deep in the bowels of the earth, she gained a score of others.

Although the daughter of the founder and commander of the Salvation Army, Eva Booth has persisted in working her way upward through her own efforts. She has filled every position, in succession, from that of sergeant to commander. Before she was twenty years of age, she was given charge of the London Province and the International Training School of the Army, with an organization of thirty thousand members under her control! From the shadows of the city to the shadows of the wilderness was the transition which suceeeded.

As thrilling a chapter of experiences as those of the London slums followed Eva Booth to the Canadian woods. Until she assumed command of the American Salvation Army three years ago, she wrestled with the problems of the wilderness, founding missions at far exposed points, establishing refuges for the fugitives from the Armenian massacre, creating a system of schools through Newfoundland, and at the opening of the Yukon making her way northward to carry on the Army work among the gold-seekers of the Klondike.

And so her career veers to the command of the American operations of the Army, a position which woman's genius has equaled in but few instances.

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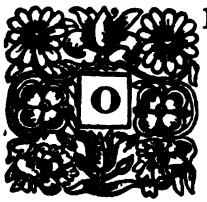
THE ARTIST OUT OF DOORS

BY

JAMES SPENCER DICKERSON



ONE would be willing to stake his reputation on the general truthfulness of the proverbial assertion that "A rose by any other name would smell as sweet." So one would imagine that a landscape labeled "Bird Center Valley" would be as pleasing as that entitled "La Vallée de l'Oise," provided each was painted equally well by the same artist. But if the painting were placed before a possible picture-buyer the chances are that he would choose the latter because it appeared to have been "Made in France."

The value placed upon an imported painting is not necessarily a criterion of its artistic worth. Americans have been too apt to examine the artist's name rather than study the artistic achievement. Gradually such indication of the provincial character of artistic opinion is passing along with the egotistical swagger of that wonderful and almost unique individual who " has been to Yurrup." American artists are continuing to take their places by the side of Frenchmen in the prize-winning lists of the Beaux-Arts in Paris, and honors won in the Secession group at Münich are catalogued for our countrymen as well as for young Germans. In the opinion of critics whose opinions rule in the world of art, American artists meet their fellows of the continent upon equal terms. The day will come when the American snob will be the only one who believes a painting is better because its pigment was purchased in the Latin Quarter rather than on State Street or Broadway.

American artists first acquired their meager reputation on account of their portraits. Then those who produced historical figure and genre pieces obtained some recognition. It was not, however, until the Hudson River School achieved a mild local and a brief foreign fame that American landscape painting may be said to have made any notable progress. The days when the masters of the Hudson River School were at their prime have been called the golden era of American art. They can only be so described when one uses that privilege to exaggerate which is so often permitted to the writer who describes theoretical conditions, not historical facts. There were a few notable painters among the select company of artists which composed the Hudson River School. It may be questioned, however, if more than one name will remain famous out of many who claimed membership in the goodly company, and that name, of course, is George Inness. Today one may find more competent, worthy American landscapists in any autumn exhibition of the Philadelphia Academy or the Art Institute of Chicago than among all the members of the Hudson River School from beginning to end.

The increase in the number of men and women who are able to turn out creditable landscapes is really remarkable, while the number of those who can paint strikingly worthy landscapes is far from insignificant or negligible.

Nor is this group of technically competent and popularly pleasing artists confined to those who exhibit their canvases in eastern galleries. The recurring exhibits at that artistic beehive, the Chicago Art Institute, give annual evidence of the growth of the ability of western artists. The recent exhibitions of the Society of Western Artists and of the Chicago Society of Artists furnish ample proof of the success attending the efforts of men whose art must be credited to the West.

Herewith are reproduced recent exam-

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ples of impressions of nature chosen from the two exhibitions to which reference has been made. The artists have found their themes near at hand. They find inspiration as moving amid the woods of the North as under Italian skies. Child life is as interesting on the banks of the Desplaines as on the edge of the Seine. Clouds and sky give as charming effect when reflected upon the Rock River as upon Lake Como. It is the man before the scene, not the scene before the man that counts.

L. H. Meakin, of Cincinnati, Charles Francis Browne, of Chicago, T. C. Steele, of Indianapolis, and W. A. Harper, of Chicago, bring before us their translations of broad expanse of field and wood.

"THE HARBOR ENTRANCE, VOLLENDAM," BY ALBERT C. FAULEY

"SUMMER DAYS," BY ANNA L. STACEY

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"IN SERE AND YELLOW LEAF," BY W. A. HARPER
The work of this negro artist is steadily growing in interest and worth

Meakin's painting suffers most, perhaps, in the absence of color, but even in the black and white one may discover the effectiveness of the masses, and feel the vibrant quality of the atmosphere. One knows that the wind was blowing when he painted this canvas. Browne's charming depiction of the Rock River country reveals the painter in his happiest mood. The movement of the shadows across the fields, the glimpse of open water beyond the brow of the bluff, the fine, massive foliage, combine to produce in the painting not only an impression of buoyancy,

"RIPPLING STREAM," BY ADOLPH R. SHULZ
As one looks at the picture, one not only sees but hears the shallow stream rippling about the stones

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"THE CLOUD," BY T. C. STEELE
A virile example of honest, straightforward painting

but, contradictory as it may seem, a sense of solidity. One feels that "The Cabin" rests upon good honest Illinois soil, not on paint.

Steele produces another virile example of honest, straightforward painting, work done without trick or deception. The scene is simple and homely enough, but the Hoosier painter makes it interesting, from weedy foreground to fleecy cloud. These three paintings were shown in the late exhibit of the Society of Western Artists. The fourth is from the brush of the young negro artist whose work is

"THE CABIN," BY CHARLES FRANCIS BROWNE
Here the painter has succeeded in giving an impression of buoyancy with a sense of solidity

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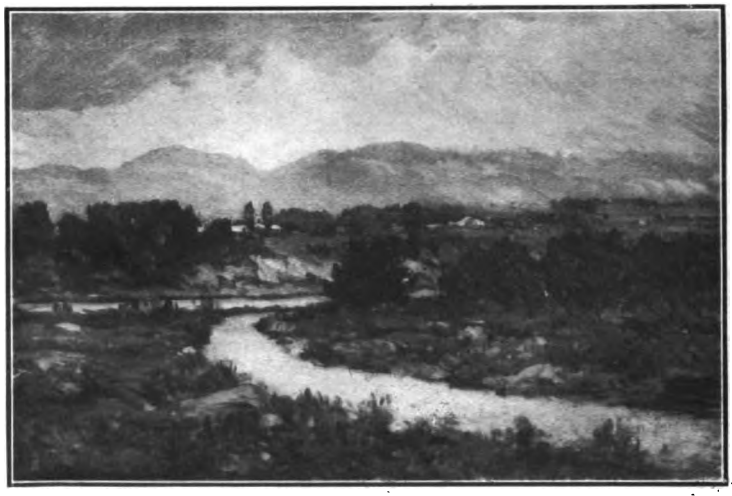
"A LUMBERMAN'S DINNER HOUR," BY RICHARD LORENZ
A vivid picture of the "real thing"

steadily growing in interest and worth. It, with several other recent canvases, hung in the recent exhibit of the Chicago Society of Artists. The only painting bought by the Union League Club, of Chicago, of those shown at this exhibition, was one of Mr. Harper's.

In this same exposition, by the way, the most successful in sales and popular interest in the history of the society, Adolph R. Shulz showed his "Rippling Stream." Here the impression of out-of-door-ness may not be so impressive as in those works affording a wider sweep of



"RAIN EFFECT—CAMDEN HILLS," BY L. H. MEAKIN
The painter's skill has made us know that the wind was blowing when he painted this picture

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the eye across meadow and upland, but one feels he is out in the open when he looks upon it. He feels as if he knew the very spot the artist has chosen for his theme. He feels acquainted with the place and in intimate relationship with it. He not only sees the shallow stream rippling about the stones, he hears it!

The scene portrayed by Richard Lorenz, a lumberman's dinner hour in the north woods in midwinter, gives an opportunity to show not only the "real thing" in the life of the lumberman, but to furnish a vivid picture in the color of the dark tree trunks, of the fallen pines and of the variegated jackets of the lumber crew.

The lure of the fish-line is as universal as the love of nature. One sees in Adam E. Albright's youthful "Anglers" on some stream near Chicago, that same patience and endurance and love of sport which animate the sturdy, although perhaps less demonstrative, fishermen of Holland as shown in Albert C. Fauley's "Harbor Entrance, Vollendam." The former may be fishing just for the fun of the thing and the hardy Dutchmen may be brought face to face with the terrors of fishing, but beneath all hardship will be found the love of outdoor life which dominates the spirit of American boy and Holland herring-fisher.

"THE ANGLERS," BY A. E. ALBRIGHT
A familiar scene well depicted

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THE NEW BRAZIL

BY

PAUL S. REINSCH

WHOEVER enters Rio Harbor for the first time, finds all the glories of memory dimmed by the marvels of this favored region. And if it be that his entry is in the early morning, before yet the rising sun has fully pierced the banks of clouds that rest on the horizon and crown the coast range mountains, he will witness a spectacle which outshines the most daring flights of the romantic painter's imagination. As the ship slowly steams up the bay between the stern buttresses of the flanking mountains, an expanding surface of dimly radiant water stretches before us. And as the morning light gains strength, we discern on the slopes and ridges of the mountain spurs running out toward the bay, shining villas, churches, monasteries: a succession of gorgeous vistas resting in an uncertain half light, but occasionally lit up brightly by a shaft from the rising sun. The swaying mists and shadows, rising from the bay and clinging about these promontories with their campaniles and massive lofty walls, suffuse the entire scene with the spirit of fairyland. But now the vast curtain of mountain mist gradually, almost majestically, rises and reveals the proud and beetling mountains that form a fit background to this charming picture.

Even upon a closer acquaintance, the city of Rio does not lose its romantic charm. It extends for over twenty miles along the bay, very narrow where the mountains come close to the water's edge; wider where nature or man has leveled a broader territory. It runs up into the mountain valleys, climbing along the banks of the little streams that descend from the hills. So it is composed of twenty cities, each with its own peculiar character: some sheltered in cosy coves, surrounded on all sides but one by lofty slopes, others rambling at large in broader valleys, still others looking out upon the quiet of the bay, or receiving upon their shores the roaring surges of the ocean. So varied is the territory that of adjoining parts of the city, separated by some high ridge, one may be unfamiliar to the inhabitants of the other. Rio has a pronounced general character; but its "wards" have varying and sharply defined attributes.

The photograph was taken from the summit of Corcorado. The unfamiliar to the inhabitants

The life in this old Portuguese colonial town is a quaint mixture of slow-going tropical restfulness and modern enterprise. Its street railways are rapid and observe strictly their intricate time-tables. Lines run up into all the valleys, others climb upon the dizzy heights overlooking the city. Recently all lines still operated by animal power were purchased by an American syndicate, and they are now to be turned into a perfectly equipped electric railway system. The older electric

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RIO DE JANEIRO AND ITS BEAUTIFUL BAY

city extends for twenty miles along the bay, and runs up into the mountain valleys so that parts of it are so separated as to be of adjoining sections. Consequently there is much variety in the natural characteristics of the city

railway lines are owned by German capital. The city has, of course, all the other conveniences of civilization.

Recently Rio de Janeiro has shaken itself mightily and aroused itself to a herculanean effort to become a truly modern town. Does not Argentina boast of her Buenos Ayres as a second Paris? Rio will show the not too friendly neighbors that she too is a cosmopolis. Paris and Berlin are cities of the plains, with long, straight boulevards. So Rio must get rid of some of her hills—morros rising to a height of one hundred to two hundred feet. One especially is an unwelcome excrescence, the Morro do Castello, one of the promontories that greeted our surprised eyes on that first morning. This is doomed, it is being leveled and will help in making a plain large enough for a city ward. So Rio will have her level areas to gladden her heart. Over these levels, straight, broad boulevards of Parisian appearance will pass. One, the Avenida Central, is already completed. With its three rows of artistic street-lamps and its gay flower-beds, it will in time become a beautiful avenue. But the shade trees must make haste and grow, for now it is worth sunstroke to cross the breadth of the street at midday in summer. In fact, the old narrow streets with their overhanging balconies were not only far more picturesque, but also far cooler, and better adapted to a tropical

THE OLD VIADUCT IN RIO

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THE WATER FRONT OF BOTAFOGO AND THE PEAK, CORCOVADO
Botafogo is a suburb of Rio de Janeiro. The peak is 2,300 feet high

THE POSTOFFICE AND "FIRST OF MARCH" STREET

city. But who in these days will object to air and light and a long vista of many-storied business blocks!

The street-life of Rio is full of color and interest. The South European character is well preserved in the architecture, in the street vending, and in the melodious calls and cries that give the street noises some suggestion of the tuning up of a good orchestra. These street calls and other means adopted by venders to draw attention to their wares are specially varied, and often very ingenious and pleasing. Each trade has its own special call. It may be a brief cadence on a flute, or the weird sound of the musette, or a xylophonic phrase, or the staccato of castanets. The Rio housewife knows what is being offered on the street by her sense of hearing, as the soldier knows the commands by the sound of the bugle. Nor are spoken words usually associated with these musical calls. If they are produced by the human voice, there may have been a time when they signified some articulate word, but they have long since assumed a musical vagueness in which the consonants

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have become liquified and swallowed up by the vowels. The grating call of milk-venders in London, and our own "rags" men, shows by contrast how these things are done in a less genial clime.

But the sojourner in Rio soon becomes aware that he is in a great political center. Ministers of state will drive along the streets in regal speed, followed by a mounted bodyguard. The army is much in evidence and sweetens its existence to the populace by open-air concerts and parades. The public buildings are mostly old and insignificant, but a bustling life ebbs and flows about them. In the halls of congress, notable tilts in debate may be witnessed, or exhibitions of a fluent and poetical oratory for which the Brazilians are famous. Soon a new and palatial home for the national congress is to arise, outshining the one at Buenos Ayres.

The political life of Brazil, as of the other South American states, still exhibits the characteristics of the colonial régime. In Brazil the government is virtually an oligarchy centering in the coffee-planting interest of the three states of Minas, Rio de Janeiro, and Sao Paulo, which contain the majority of population and wealth. The present Brazilian government is in form and theory based upon the constitution of the United States. The jurisprudence of our federal supreme court has become by adoption the jurisprudence of Brazil, and the opinions of John Marshall are cited as authority by the Brazilian federal tribunals. In several respects this wholesale adoption of foreign institutions was in contradiction to the historic traditions of Portuguese Brazil.

The states into which Brazil was divided had never enjoyed local autonomy, the inherent political vitality of our American commonwealths. The conflicting claims of federal and local authorities did not therefore have a clear historical basis upon which they could be decided without constantly involving the community in local disturbances which, at times, rose to the importance of a revolt. The federal power over the states is consequently often denied by the local authorities in cases where its enforcement would seem to us to be essential for national unity. The decrees made by the supreme federal tribunal have frequently been disregarded by the local authorities, and have been defied by the governors and legislatures of provinces. In some cases the federal government did not feel strong enough to back up the decision of the supreme court by the use of armed force. Thus we have seen a state, contrary to federal law, levying a discriminating tax upon foreign banking corporations, and for a long time successfully defying the federal decree ordering the restitution of the amounts thus collected.

When we consider the vast extent of Brazil and the widely divergent economic interests of such regions as the Amazon basin and the agricultural states of the South, when we take into account the one-sided economic policy which has been pursued by the interests in power, it is not surprising that the national life of Brazil can not as yet be said to embrace and fully to express all the interests within its wide territory.

Another political principle taken over by Brazil from the American constitution, is the separation of powers and a balance between the three great departments of government. The historic traditions of Portugal and Brazil had leaned rather toward the establishment of some form of parliamentary government like the cabinet system of Great Britain. The Brazilian parliament under the empire, while it was not of course representative of the whole nation, exhibited a good deal of vitality and was the theater of many able political discussions. But the example of the United States overbore the tendency referred to above, and the presidential form of government was established. The congressional bodies in Brazil consequently have failed to gain the importance that might have been anticipated from their condition before the revolution of 1889. In the main, however, this attempted introduction of North American political principles has exercised only a superficial influence upon the Brazilian government. The spirit of authority and the administrative traditions are practically unchanged.

Since slavery was abolished in Brazil in 1888, the great problem of the planters has been to secure inexpensive labor and to keep up the price of their product. They have called upon the state to assist them in bringing in cheap Italian and Polish labor in large quantities, and in

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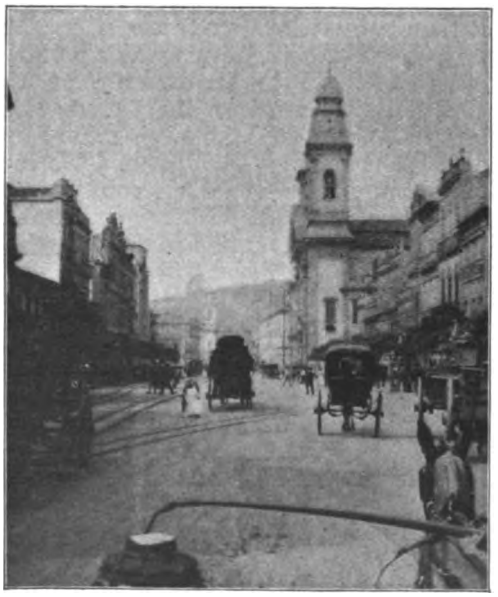
CABRAL PLACE AND MONUMENT, RIO

creating a labor legislation favorable to their interest. But the increased production of coffee the world over led to constantly greater difficulties on the part of the Brazilian planters. Within the last two years, an ambitious and characteristic plan of legislation has been evolved by them. Many suggestions were made in the conference held on this topic, for a prevention of a further fall of the coffee prices. It was seriously argued whether it might not be advisable to destroy twenty or thirty per cent of the coffee crop in order to limit the supply. The arrangement which finally found favor and which was embodied in a formal convention between the three coffee-producing states, was that a foreign loan should be negotiated, with the proceeds of which the government should purchase a large share of the coffee crop and, fixing the price at a certain minimum, should not sell until this price had been reached. The Brazilian Congress, in the summer of 1906, accepted this proposal and authorized this action to be taken.



THE MAIN STREET, RIO
The narrow streets, with their overhanging balconies, are more picturesque than the new modern avenues

The value of Brazilian money has within the last six years risen rapidly. This rise is very desirable from the point of view of foreign investment, which would be materially discouraged by a falling and fluctuating currency; but to the Brazilian industries, especially coffee and rubber, the rising value of the national currency is a manifest disadvantage, because, while their payments for wages and other expenses remain the same, they gradually get less and less currency in return for their product. It was therefore proposed to prevent a further rise of the currency and fix the exchange permanently at fifteen pence a milreis.

It must not be conceived that the controlling interests in the three great Brazilian states are narrow in their view of economic life. In fact, they desire to build up a diversified industry in Brazil. The manner in which they attempt to favor this development, however, is through

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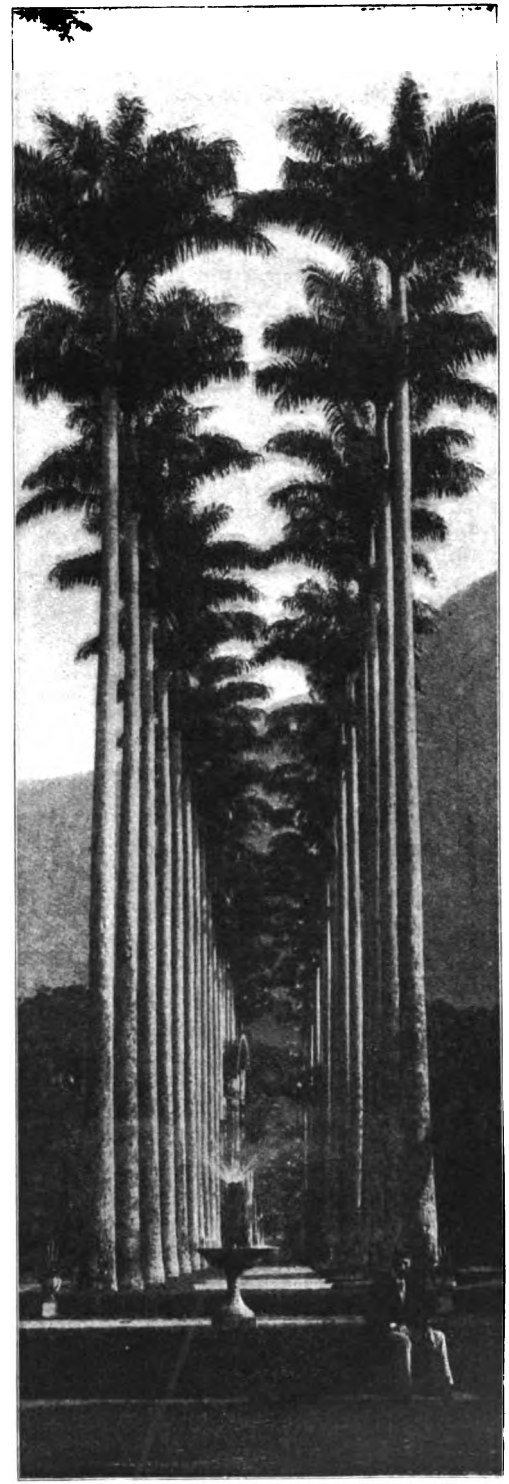
high tariff legislation, which might be adapted to a country which has already seen a material advance of manufacturing industries, but which in a country whose main reliance must always be the products of tropical agriculture, constitutes a great burden and drawback upon national prosperity. This policy is supported also on account of the great financial needs of the Brazilian government. As the main industry of the country finds itself already in an embarrassed condition, it will not do to levy further taxes upon it. It is therefore necessary for the government to scour the field of economic life and to seize upon every possible source of taxation. High tariff duties, high consumptive taxes, stamps upon every article sold and upon every document used in commercial intercourse, taxes upon travelers desiring to leave the country — these are some of the sources of revenue, the extreme utilization of which, joined to the rise in the value of the circulation, has made Brazil to-day one of the most expensive countries of the world in which to live.

The individual states have their separate financial systems. For commercial purposes they may levy import and export taxes, but the proceeds of these must be paid over to the federal treasury. Their field of taxation is therefore limited practically to direct taxes, and in a population already heavily burdened from the indirect imposts of the federal government, the states frequently find themselves in a state of practical bankruptcy. In Brazil, the poverty of the state governments and at times of branches of the federal government is a constant subject of comment.

The social life of Brazil is aristocratic rather than democratic. While there is more race mixture than with us, the colored race is almost as completely excluded from fashionable society and from the higher walks of life as in this country. There are indeed no negro lynchings, and Brazil received a negro consul from the United States without any objections. Negroes also form a large and valuable part of the national army. No express political or social disabilities are imposed upon them, but the fact remains that the higher political and social life of the republic is nearly as free from negro intermixture as with us. Almost the first thing



THE AVENUE OF PALMS IN THE BOTANICAL GARDENS, RIO

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which strikes the visitor to Brazil is the frequent recurrence of certain family names, and as he begins to read the political and literary history of Brazil, these same names will occur again and again, showing that a comparatively small nucleus of leading families has controlled the political and social destinies of the country from its beginnings.

The social life of a city like Rio is, of course, governed by the same conventions as that of other great capitals. Brazilian society is especially fond of gorgeous public entertainments and brilliant receptions. When the young inventor, Santos Dumont, revisited his native land, he was received by the officers of state, and in the old imperial state barge conveyed in triumphal procession to the city where he was banqueted, where theatrical and oratorical exhibits were given in his honor, where in a word he was the lion of the day. The reception which Ambassador Nabuco received when, with some other members of the Third Pan-American Conference, he arrived in Brazil, was even more elaborate.

The intellectual seriousness of Brazilians has manifested itself especially in literary life. The very fact that the literary men of Brazil take themselves so seriously, while it often leads to a rather amusing overvaluation, on the other hand has given Brazilian literature a certain dignity and completeness, certain elements of approach to the essence of life and civilization, which other American literatures thus far have not developed to an equal degree. It may indeed be said that while such Spanish-speaking countries as Chile and Argentina are far in advance of Brazil in the processes of civilization, in pure culture Brazil is the most advanced country in Latin America. The literary traditions of Brazil go back for over three hundred years. The colonial literature of Brazil, like other colonial literatures, does not boast of anything strikingly original. Yet its historians, its poets, its general writers, deserve attention, and there are among them such exceptional apparitions as the colonial Rabelais, Gregorio de Mattos, who, in his "Bocca de Inferno" (Mouth of Hell), delineates with a ruthless hand all the vices and foibles of a degenerate colonial society.

Brazilian literature has followed step

PREPARING FOR THE NEW RIO

Ambitious to be like Paris and Berlin, Rio is leveling the morros (hills) so that she may have long, straight boulevards

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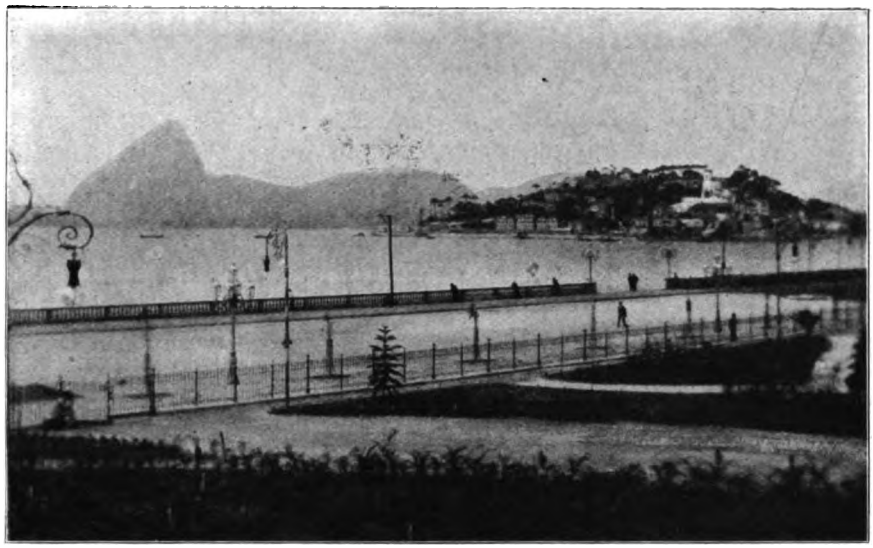

THE NEW WATER FRONT OF RIO

The shade trees so much needed on the new broad avenues, because of the tropical sun, are beginning to show growth

by step the development of the continental European intellect. It has been in closer touch with the European spirit than the literature of the United States; it has had its classic age, its romantic age, its naturalistic age. To-day a Brazilian writer says: "We have realists and naturalists like Zola, Maupassant and Eça; Parnassians like Leconte and Heredia; psychologists like Bourget; decadentists like Verlaine; satanists like Baudelaire; *picaresque reconteurs* like Sylvestre and Mendes." It is certainly true that every phase of European literary life is reflected in the Brazilian, and also that Brazil has not as yet freed herself from dependence on Europe. For some time past, France has exercised the greatest intellectual influence upon Brazilian writers. They speak French as their second language and they are in every way familiar with French life and ideas. To some extent modern-day Brazilian writers share the marvelous variety and perfection of technique which characterize contemporary French literature.

While as yet not thoroughly emancipated from European influence, Brazil to-day boasts of writers who may be considered truly national in that they strive to bring to an expression the peculiar conditions and aspirations of Brazilian life. The ideal of coöperation and union between Europeans and Indians contained in the romantic interpretation of Brazilian history, in Alencar's ethnic story of "Guarany," which later was given brilliant operatic form by Carlos Gomes, no longer animates Brazilian writers. They have become psychologists with the prevailing tendency, and describe Brazilian life with a keen psychologic analysis. Novels like Graça Aranha's "Chanaan" and Azevedo's "Livro de Uma Sogra" rank with the best descriptions of national life. Brazilian essayists are generally more eclectic. Arthuro Orlando occupies the chair of the universal philosopher, transmitting to the Brazilian mind everything that moves the intellect of the world, from Tokyo to Constantinople and thence to San Francisco, but the more specifically literary critics are, like novelists and poets, striving to give a complete and free expression to a national spirit, and while at times unduly generous in their admiration for a national writer, they exhibit great keenness of perception, deep literary insight, and a noble fervor in their esteem of the influence of literature upon life.

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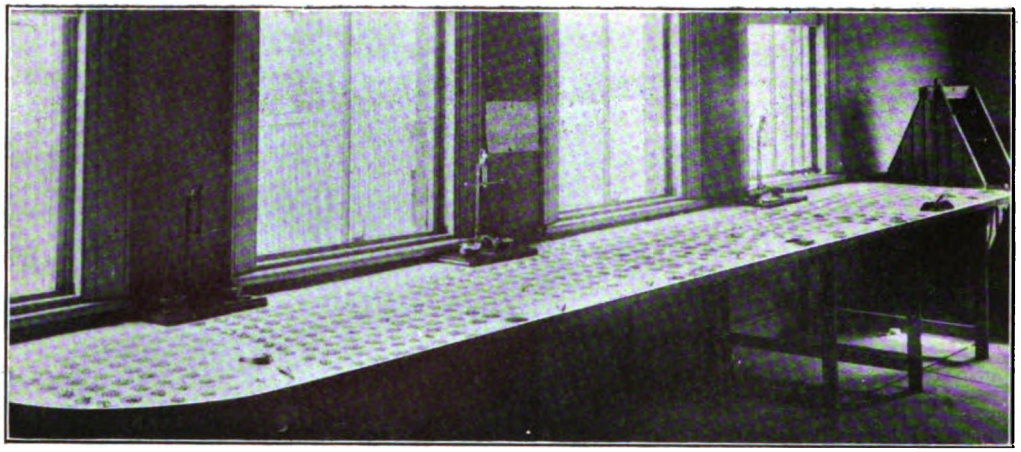

A million dollars' worth of diamonds, sorted and ready for shipment in the Kimberley office

MINING THE WORLD'S DIAMONDS

THE ROMANTIC STORY OF MAGIC CAVES IN AFRICA WHICH HAVE YIELDED $500,000,000 WORTH OF GEMS, AND ARE STILL THE SOURCE OF THE WORLD'S SUPPLY

BY

W. G. FITZ-GERALD

A PROSPEROUS world expends every year $25,000,000 in rough diamonds, and such of them as do not come from the mines of Kimberley may be considered a negligible quantity. That may not be the case for long, however, for the precious gems have been discovered recently in the Transvaal, and the finding a year or two ago of the famous "Cullinan" stone, which weighs over one pound avoirdupois, marks a record in the history of mineralogy.

Do not believe that romance is dead, for I will take you to an ugly little town of twenty-five thousand people that has grown up around four or five yawning holes in the earth. A very dreary town, this Kimberley, dumped on the desolate African veldt that produces not an ear of corn. Little better than a desert, in fact, where artificial irrigation is everywhere necessary.

The city's streets stretch like protecting arms around the precious caves which in a few years have yielded more than twelve tons weight of diamonds, valued at half a billion dollars! Look back on the story of this desert patch and you have a strange romance. It begins with two little bands of Boer emigrants fleeing out of Cape Colony a generation ago to escape British oppression. One of them by some strange fate settled on a patch of gold forty miles in extent which has since become the famous Rand, and yields a hundred million dollars every year in the precious metal.

On the other hand Burgher Jacobs offsaddled on a hundred acres of diamonds, and his little claim to-day contains an absolute monopoly of the world in these gems. His children used to play in the sand with bright pebbles for marbles. Neighbor Schalk Van Neikirk saw one of

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the stones, took it from the little ones with the remark that it might be valuable, and the following year it was on show at the Universal Exposition of Paris as a magnificent diamond of twenty-one carats.

Two years later old Van Neikirk himself picked out of the mud plaster of neighbor Du Toit's hut the famous "Star of Africa," which sold for $56,000. That was the beginning of the diamond mines which to-day employ fifteen thousand Kaffirs and four thousand Europeans — "All this for the vanity of women," as Lord Randolph Churchill remarked, on his first visit to the diggings.

It seems ages since the Griqua native shepherds were seen wearing rough stones as charms worth $100,000 each; yet in reality it is but very few years ago. Little wonder that before the De Beers era twelve thousand diggers swarmed along the magic banks of the Vaal, groveling in gravel and locrustine sand. The stuff would be dumped in heaps at the water's edge and washed in cradles over screens of various mesh.

Soon there were one thousand six hundred separate claim-holders in the Kimberley Mine alone; and the big pit showed weirdly with its cobweb of wires stretched at various angles from the lip of the precipice to the working-places of the busy bees below. Even in those days thousands of savages were employed, and their roaring war songs and strident laughter, with the incessant clatter of ever-running hide buckets, made up a hideous din.

The pits run in "tubes" or "funnels" many acres in extent, evidently forced up ages ago by volcanic action. At first a yellow ground was found, and men left the blue below this severely alone. But the era of open workings soon came to an end, although thousands of independent diggers made huge fortunes in a few months. To-day you will find depths of three thousand feet in the diamond mines, and the bottom of the blue funnel has not yet been reached. Both blue and yellow earths, which are studded with diamonds like a geological pudding, are supposed to be volcanic mud that has bubbled up through the action of subterranean heat of unthinkable degree.

Soon elaborate machinery took the

SEARCHING THE GRAVEL FOR DIAMONDS
They are not impressive in the rough, as they look like scraps of dull glass

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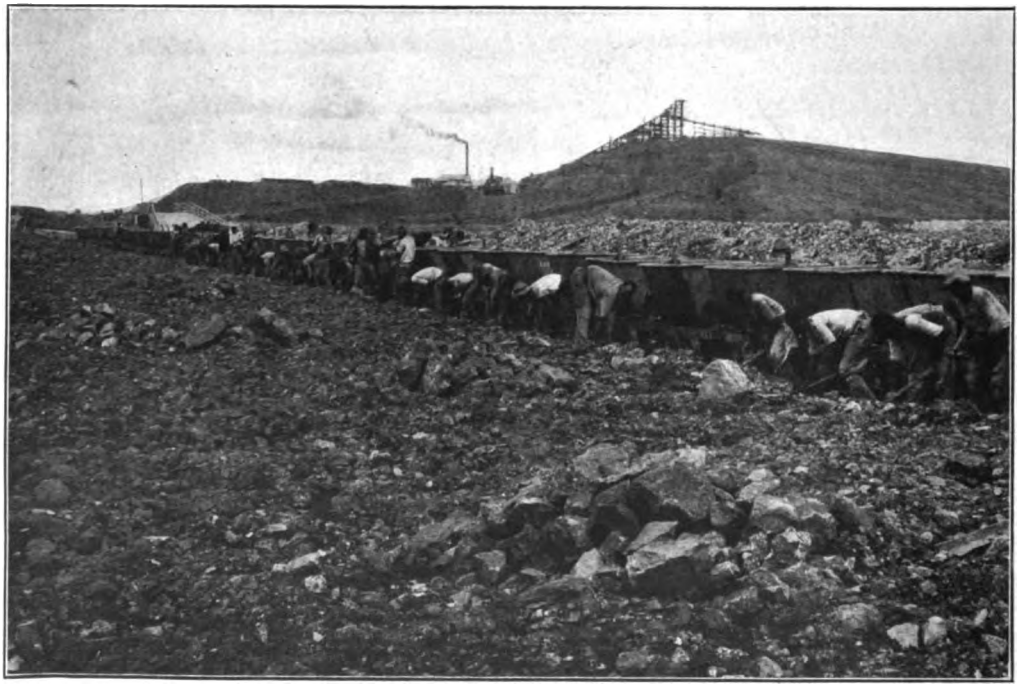
place of the primitive gear, and after a long series of reckless disasters such as falls of rock, floodings in the mine, and sinister rushes of mud, a regular system was adopted, and the Mining Board established. Then came an era of large companies whose competition brought about overproduction of the gems and much lowness of price. At this stage Cecil Rhodes came upon the scene, and with his colleagues secured entire control over the mines, drawing a check for more than $25,000,000 for one claim. Any visitor to the De Beers' offices in London may see the original check for himself, duly framed and hung.

The mines were practically shut down after the amalgamation and no production allowed in order that the economic law of supply and demand should right itself. The largest stone from the Kimberley Mine was secured about this time and weighed 503 carats. It was imperfect, however, and only fetched $60,000.

There are at present five magic caves: the De Beers, the Kimberley, the Bultfontein, Du Toit's Pan, and Wesselton. All these are within six miles of each other, a roaring hive of industry whose mere machinery is worth over $20,000,000. Each cave has above ground great compounds, where the working Kaffirs are practically imprisoned during their term of service. There are high walls and roof-nettings to prevent the inmates from tossing diamonds over to confederates outside, for the Kaffirs did a great trade in the old days throwing over tin cans containing fine stones to be picked up by wives or friends and sold for the benefit of the family. And to-day, in spite of the most perfect system of espionage that science can suggest, and with expert searchings three or four times a day, a traffic is done in illicit diamond-buying to the tune of $4,000,000 a year. So complete is the monopoly in the world's diamonds, however, that the De Beers people themselves buy back these stones, in reality their own property.

The shortest period for which the Kaffirs contract to work is three months. The work of the underground drillers and blasters is extremely hard, for the famous "blue" in which the precious stones are embedded is as hard as rock, and many tons of dynamite have to be used, causing smoke almost poisonous.



LOADING "BLUE GROUND" ON TO THE OPEN-AIR "DUMPING-FLOORS"
Air, rain and sun are effectual agents in breaking up the rocky earth and releasing the precious stones

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Holes for blasting are first drilled and then the blasts are touched off. The crushed blue ground is conveyed to the mine shaft one thousand five hundred feet away from the tunnels. Here at the foot of the shaft the ore is dumped into buckets on wheels and swiftly drawn out of the mines by powerful engines. Then you will see thousands of men, mostly negroes, earning $1.25 a day perched upon the blue-ground rock in the tunnels, patiently drilling with hammer and chisel.

Great stretches of ground known as the "floors" are marked off like tennis courts to receive the precious ore; for air, rain, and sun will do the work of disintegration as no costly machinery could do it. One mine alone has five miles of dumping floors. Upon their smooth surface is spread the "blue" to the depth of a foot, and after several months it crumbles and releases the indestructible crystals within, such as diamonds, garnets, olivines and other stones of lesser value, usually found associated with the most precious of all gems.

THE DIAMOND-WASHING GEAR AT KIMBERLEY

It is a marvel of ingenuity. As the dirt and gravel pass down its plane the diamonds are arrested by a coating of tallow

The disintegration process is helped by harrowing with steam plows; and all such ground as remains obdurate goes into the crushing machine to be pulverized. The vast washing-gear is a marvel of ingenuity; and as the dirt and gravel pass down its plane the diamonds are arrested by a tallowy coating. This fat is then scraped off and melted in a caldron, in whose bottom the diamonds are found like precious grounds in a gigantic coffee-cup.

They are taken from here to the gen-

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DINNER-TIME IN THE GREAT COMPOUND OF THE DE BEERS MINES
The netting overhead is to prevent the men throwing diamonds over the walls to confederates outside

eral offices of the monopoly and sorted according to value and size. Stones worth $200,000 have been washed in a single day. But even the waste earth is not yet done with. This is specially treated lest tallow and machinery alike should have overlooked anything of value. That the precaution is worth while is seen from the fact that diamonds worth $1,400,000 were recovered from these tailings last year.

A London syndicate contracts to take the entire output of the mines; and all cutting is done on the Continent of Europe, chiefly in Amsterdam and Antwerp. The stones vary enormously in quality and fetch in the rough from $1.50 to $200 per carat. There is very little "leakage" considering the stupendous scale on which the diamond mining is done. One year, however, a negro sorter was found to have swallowed $3,700 worth of stones, but a colleague broke this record by swallowing 348 carats of diamonds valued at $5,300.

The Kaffirs are constantly devising new modes of smuggling. They will load their pipe-bowl with small diamonds under a layer of tobacco and vigorously puff smoke to divert suspicion. Leaves of books have been so cut that no one would think diamonds were concealed between them. Other smugglers have gone so far as to inflict serious cuts upon themselves and stuff valuable stones into these wounds.

It will be news to most people that diamonds are found of every color — yellow, brown, blue, green, black, red and purple. None of them are impressive in the rough; you would take them for scraps of soda or dull glass. The cutting of the stones by the lapidaries of Antwerp and Amsterdam is a most delicate task, handed down from father to son. One diamond is cut with another, and the precious dust has a high commercial value.

From the cutter the stone passes to the polisher, who goes to work on its sixty-four facets until the diamond as a whole is sufficiently brilliant. Each pol-

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THE SEARCHING-TABLES IN THE DIAMOND MINES

There is comparatively little thievery, but one year a negro sorter was found to have swallowed $3,700 worth of stones, and another, 348 carats of diamonds worth $5,300

isher stands before a solid iron wheel whirling horizontally at two thousand five hundred revolutions a minute. The cleaver can cut in a day what it takes a polisher a month to polish. Altogether the magic caves of South Africa turn out at least $20,000,000 worth of stones every year; and the De Beers people are naturally *the* power of the African continent. They have just spent nearly $7,000,000 on a dynamite factory, so enormous an item is the annual bill for explosives to dislodge the flinty blue ground which holds the precious hoard.

These people are all powerful in the matter of diamonds; and periodically the dictum goes forth from the palatial offices in St. Swithin's Lane, London, that a five or ten per cent increase is to be made in their price. Last season colored stones were becoming fashionable owing to the increased cost of diamonds; but women the world over revert sooner or later to the most beautiful of all the precious stones.

Careful official calculation has it that fashionable New York alone wears $150,000,000 in precious stones; and statistics compiled at the custom-house of that city for the first ten months of this year show the assessed imports of precious stones to be more than $39,280,550, which is eight times greater than the same period in 1896, when pure stones were from twenty-five to thirty-five per cent cheaper.

As to diamonds alone, $57,000,000 worth of them in the rough were admitted into New York within the last five or six years. It is estimated that the duty on stones brought into America's greatest city during 1906 will amount to more than $4,000,000, or nearly half the entire appropriation for the expenses of the custom-house.

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The City Council in Session

PROGRESS CITY

BY

CHARLES J. BUSHNELL

INTELLIGENT educators and social workers in our great cities are beginning to realize that some radical changes in the methods of public education are becoming imperative, particularly in the congested industrial districts, to enable the public to cope successfully with the flood of immigration, destitution and tenement-house evils now attacking those districts, and beginning seriously to threaten the whole social life of the cities.

During the past summer an interesting and successful experiment in the direction of a more thoroughly democratic public education was carried on at The Hiram House Social Settlement in Cleveland by Dr. and Mrs. C. J. Bushnell of Heidelberg University, Tiffin, Ohio. The experiment took the form of a model juvenile city and industrial school combined, in principle somewhat like the famous George Junior Republic, but more especially adapted to city conditions. Over four hundred children, from eight to eighteen years of age, from the mixed foreign population of the Settlement neighborhood, enrolled as citizens within the first week after the enterprise was started on July 2.

Every morning in the week, except Saturday and Sunday, these young citizens assembled under the great awning on the playground of the Settlement to hear reports of their public officers, sing patriotic songs, receive and discuss petitions, enact laws, carry on elections and in general consider and direct the management of their city's public concerns.

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In this General Assembly, as in the old New England town meeting, every citizen had a voice and a vote. For the cultivation of the sense of responsibility, public spirit and enterprise, the initiation and conduct of affairs was left, as far as possible, in the hands of the young people themselves. The preamble of the constitution, drawn up and adopted by them, indicates the spirit and purpose of the whole undertaking: "We junior citizens of Cleveland, Ohio, in order to prepare ourselves for good citizenship and assist in establishing clean, honest, well-ordered cities in our country, do found a city and ordain the following constitution for the government of the same."

In the elections the regular Australian ballot system was used. And, moreover, woman suffrage prevailed, resulting at times in the election of very capable girls to public office, much to the chagrin of the defeated boys. Occurring every week on Friday, the elections furnished the occasion for considerable familiarity with the methods of election and duties of public office. The terms of office were for one week — rather short, perhaps — with but one possible reëlection. An interesting array of public offices and officers was finally developed. There was a mayor, who presided in the General Assembly and City Council meetings, with general administrative authority over the city; and a city clerk who kept a record of the same meetings. The city treasurer had control of the city bank and general public finances, including assessment and collection of taxes. The city judge presided over the city court. The prosecuting attorney signed warrants for arrests and tried offenders in the court. There was a postmaster in charge of the city postoffice; and an editor who produced a very successful weekly paper, the *Progress City News*. A prosperous general store was organized, in charge of a regularly elected store manager; and a street-cleaning department in charge of a Board of Public Service of three members. And last, but not least, a chief of police and six sturdy patrolmen helped to keep order at the assemblies and elections and supervise the games of the playground. All these officers, with the exception of the police, who were ap-

A YOUTHFUL CULPRIT ON TRIAL

All the court forms of procedure are carefully observed, and the defense has the right of counsel. The success of the work was proven in the way the boys came to respect the "square deal"

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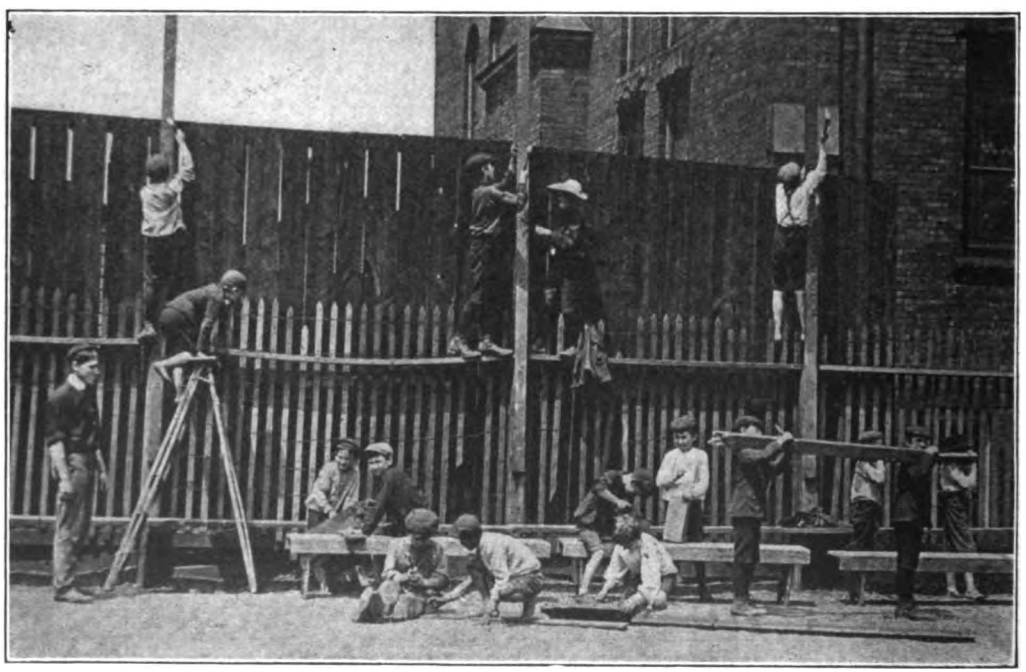
pointed by the mayor, were elected by the "citizens" from among their own number for the regular term of one week. But beside these were the directors of eight industrial departments, elected permanently at the beginning from among the experienced residents and friends of the Settlement.

These industrial departments were the substantial center of the whole work. Good citizenship does not necessarily follow from a knowledge about public office, nor even from an active participation in its duties and its opportunities for public plunder. Genuine good citizenship, on the contrary, springs primarily from the spirit of honest, enthusiastic coöperation for the attainment of common public ends. Without this spirit our cities must die a miserable death, like the Babylons and Romes before them; and for the cultivation of this spirit these industrial departments were organized, not as private commercial enterprises to divide the interests of the community, but as democratic public undertakings to unite them.

The eight departments were in carpentry, painting, printing, brass hammering, weaving, cooking, sewing, and millinery. To cultivate both technical skill and enthusiasm every citizen was made to feel that his work counted for something, was worth something of real value to his city. For example, the boys in the carpentry department made cupboards, seats and apparatus for the playground, besides repairing the fences; in the painting department they painted the fences; and in the printing department they not only issued the weekly newspaper but furnished the blank checks, receipts, deposit slips, Progress City letter-heads, etc., for the bank and other departments of the city. In the sewing department the girls made aprons for their home use and bloomers for their gymnasium work; in the weaving department they made baskets and mats; and in the millinery department, tasteful and useful hats. All excess goods were sold through the store. All workers, both in the industries and the offices, were regularly paid through the bank in Progress City money, which was made good through sales at the store, and picnics and excursions about Cleveland. Each department constituted a ward of the city and



THE CARPENTRY DEPARTMENT AT WORK
Repairing the Playground Fence

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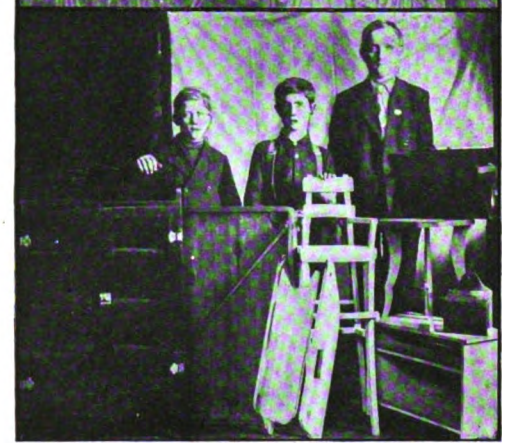
sent its elected representative to the city council.

The city council acted not only as a legislative body, in conjunction with the General Assembly, but also as a board of elections and a court for impeachment trials.

The bank furnished much valuable public financial training. Each citizen had his individual passbook. The city incomes for payment of salaries and other expenses were derived from a ten per cent income tax on all citizens, the arrears of delinquents being promptly deducted from their wages.

One of the most interesting institutions was the court. The laws, passed by the General Assembly and City Council, covered a considerable variety of subjects: theft, disorderly conduct, trespass, contempt, etc., each with careful definition and penalty, usually fine and exclusion from the playground. At the beginning of each trial the judge read the law, and all the forms of procedure were carefully observed, the defense having the right of counsel. The first week the court was in operation there were seventeen arrests, with nine acquittals and eight convictions; the second week, nine arrests, with four acquittals and five convictions; the third week five arrests, with three acquittals and two convictions; and the fourth week no arrests at all. This decrease of court business was one of the best commentaries on the success of the work. The boys came to respect the "square deal," and found it no fun to be arrested. As one significantly put it, "I didn't know it was such a disgrace to be arrested!" The creation of a healthy public opinion is the greatest triumph of democracy.



AN EXHIBIT OF THE INDUSTRIES OF THE CITY
Basket-making, hammered brass, millinery and carpentry

Prizes, contests, picnics, band concerts and stereopticon lectures — sometimes to outdoor crowds of thousands — were some of the devices used to interest both the parents and the children of the community in the higher life. The experiment commends itself to all lovers of their kind, who are struggling with the serious modern city problem.

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THE LIGHTHOUSE SERVICE OF THE UNITED STATES

BY

C. H. CLAUDY

AT the entrance to Boston Harbor, in 1715, stood the only lighthouse possessed by the United States. It was erected by the State of Massachusetts. To-day the United States Lighthouse Establishment has in use 1,495 lighthouses and beacon lights, 60 lightships, 142 gas-lighted buoys, 450 fog signals, 1,813 postlights, unlighted day beacons to the number of 683, 95 whistling buoys, 139 bell buoys, and 5,212 buoys of all other kinds. In less than two hundred years this country has marched from the position of having no aids to navigation, to being, in proportion to her coast line, the most perfectly protected country in the world!

After the erection of the Boston harbor light, other lights, to the total of eight, were erected on the northern Atlantic coast, by state appropriations. In 1789 the United States government took over these eight lights — all still in operation, though greatly improved — and celebrated the occasion by completing the old lighthouse at Cape Henry, made of bricks and stone brought from England. This light, by the way, burned until its date was inverted, the new and present magnificent structure being finally put in commission in 1879.

The Secretary of the Treasury first had supervision of the lighthouse service, then unorganized as a separate and distinct branch of the government, giving it up to the Commissioner of Revenue in 1792 when that office was established, to resume it again and again give it up to the Commissioner, until that office was permanently abolished. In 1820 Stephen Pleasanton, Fifth Auditor of the Treasury, became Superintendent of Lights, and from the fifty lights with which he started he built up a service comprising 325 lights and numerous other aids to navigation. The service fluctuated after Pleasanton's time, being now under one official and now under another, now cared for, now neglected, until, in 1852, the present Lighthouse Board was organized. This marked the era of lighthouse supremacy for the United States. The Board is composed of two officers of high rank in the Navy, two engineer officers of the Army, two civilians of scientific attainments and two additional officers from both the Army and Navy who act as secretaries.

The Board divided the country into districts, of which there are now sixteen, and from the board, and by the board, under Congress, are originated all the aids to navigation and the present magnificent system which guards the coasts, the rocks, the shoals, and the difficult passages so that they shall not harm the mariner, unless more than warning is needed to preserve him from danger.

The enormous coast line of the United States and the difficult character of her inland waters, the great rivers and the great lakes, make a service which demands every variety and kind of light, of buoy, of day beacon, and of noise-producing apparatus. The whole and main idea of coast illumination is to provide lights at such intervals that the lights shall overlap, and a ship be unable to sail beyond the range of one, along the coast, without coming within reach of another. That there may be no dark spots, in which a ship may be lost, is the whole end and aim of the Lighthouse Establishment as far as the seacoast is concerned. If the exigencies of the navigation at any one locality demand that lights be so

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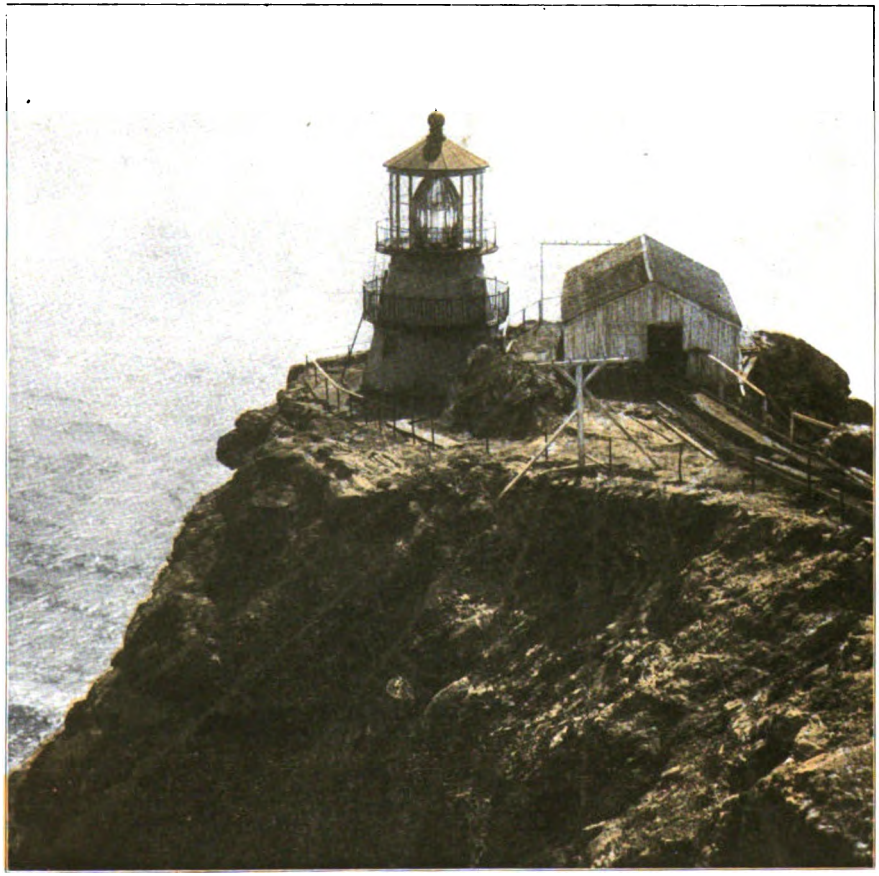
close as to allow of several being seen at once, so much the better. The entrance to Chesapeake Bay, for instance, provides a number of lights for the guidance of ships. There is the First Order fixed white light at Cape Henry, and the beautiful revolving light of Cape Charles, marking the entrance. There are two light vessels marking shoals, the Thimble Shoal Light of Hampton Roads, the Old Point Comfort Light, and nine lesser lights, all with a distinct purpose, and all aids to the entrance and safe navigation of one of the most beautiful harbors in the world.

This bay, also, shows a number of types of lights, seldom seen in juxtaposition. Cape Henry's is the shell-tower type, a double cylinder of iron 152 feet high, and throwing a fixed white light, with a red beam on one side covering a certain dangerous shoal. It is visible twenty miles in clear weather. Cape Charles, the opposite cape, has a steel skeleton tower, a central tube of small diameter, stayed and guyed on the outside with steel tubes of enormous strength. This lighthouse, one of the "show" structures of the country, is 175 feet high. The flash is visible twenty miles and even more, if the weather is favorable. Thimble Shoal light is a screw pile, supported on iron piles screwed down into the mud and sandy bottom. It is a type of many southern lighthouses, the lights of which are local in character, and has but one danger, ice. When an ice gorge forms up the Potomac and finally lets loose enormous masses of ice which run out with the tide in irresistible force, these lighthouses are sometimes badly damaged, which accounts for their use being mainly confined to southern waters.



POINT REYES LIGHTHOUSE, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA
Its natural location is higher than that of any other lighthouse in the world. The cage of lenses can be clearly seen in this picture

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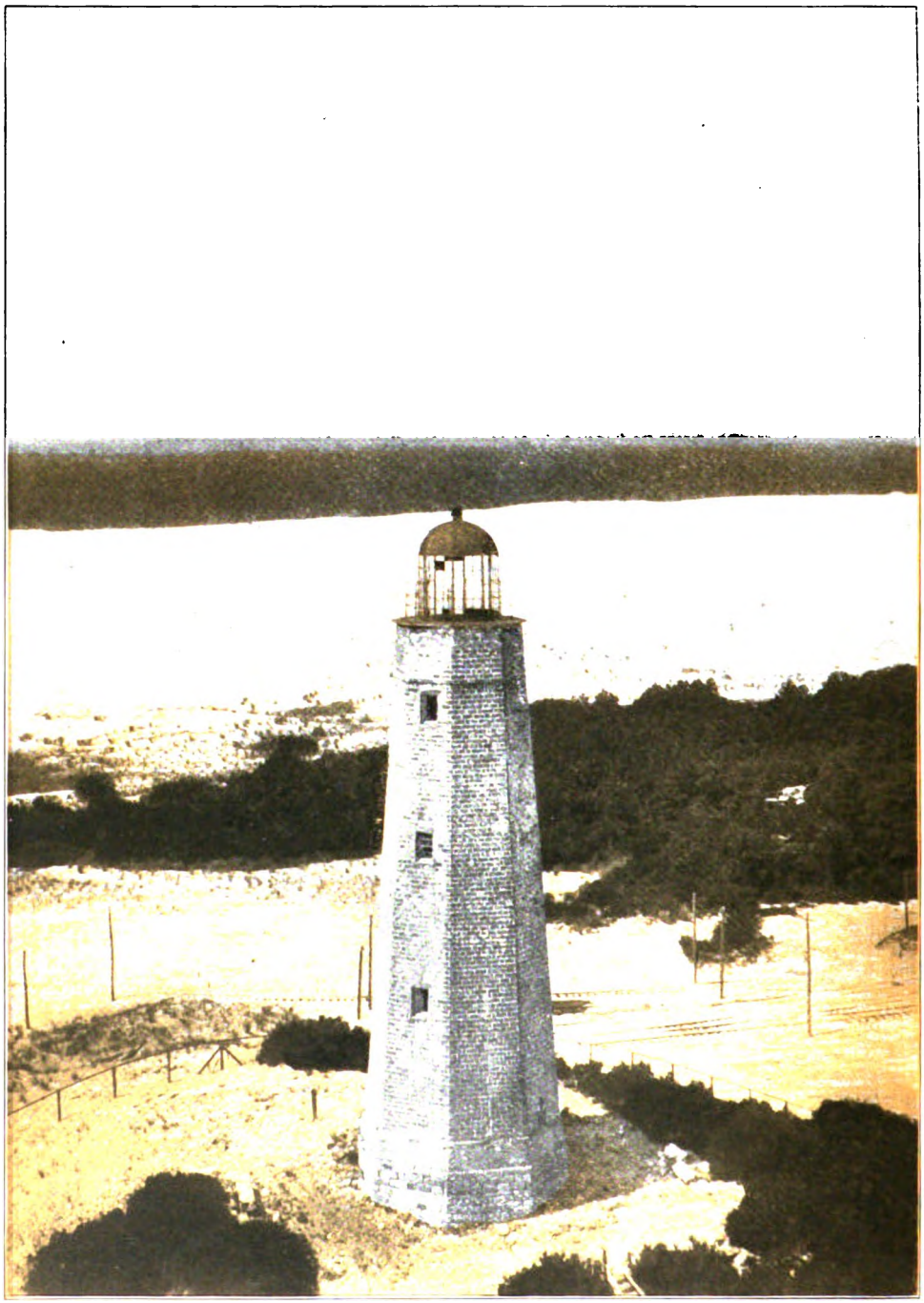

THE OLD LIGHTHOUSE AT CAPE HENRY

It was built in 1789, at the entrance to Chesapeake Bay, of bricks and stone brought from England, and was abandoned in 1879. Sand dunes are everywhere around it

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THE CAPE HENRY LIGHTHOUSE OF TO-DAY, BUILT IN 1879

It is a double cylinder of iron, 152 feet high, and has a fixed white light of the first order, which in clear weather is visible for twenty miles. The fog signal station is below

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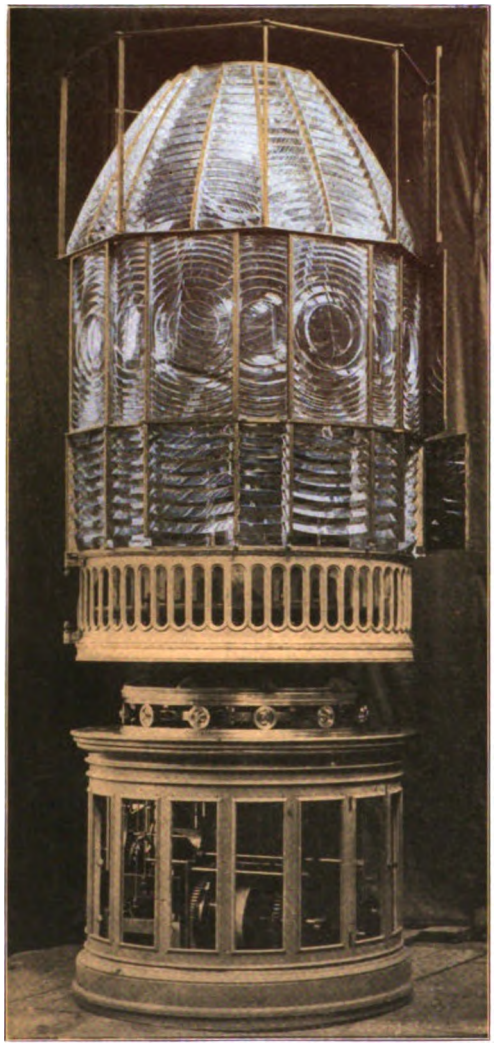

A FIRST ORDER LENTICULAR APPARATUS OF THE REVOLVING TYPE

A man can easily stand upright inside the cage with three feet to spare. This apparatus costs about $18,000

But the lighthouses of the Chesapeake, representative of their classes as they are, are not the ones which are always called to mind by those informed, when lighthouse building is under discussion. Historic, and possibly first in order in difficulty, is Minot's Ledge, near Boston. On this lonely ledge of rock, awash with the tide at low water and covered in high, a lighthouse was erected in 1848, of iron piles. In 1851 the house was swept away, and all in it at the time — a keeper and two assistants — lost their lives. In 1860 the last stone of the present structure was laid, completing one of the great stone lighthouses of the world. General Barnard, an engineer of wide fame, said of it: "It ranks, by the engineering difficulties surrounding its erection, and by the skill and science shown in the details of its construction, among the chief of the great sea rock lighthouses of the world." Work could only be done at low water. Blasting and cutting a rock hardly big enough for the lighthouse itself, constant interference from wind and sea, made the laying of every fresh block of stone a new and unsolved problem. Minot's Ledge light to-day, one of the loneliest lighthouses in existence, is still a triumph, although some other structures since erected have equalled it in difficulty.

Spectacle Reef, for instance, in Lake Huron, was an engineering problem, the solution of which was breathlessly watched by the engineers of the world, and when in 1873, the structure was completed, every one predicted that the terrible ice push of the winter would sweep it away. But the man who built it, General O. M. Poe, chief engineer to General Sherman in his March to the Sea, had built with a cunning hand. The masonry courses were so fitted together, so dovetailed each to each, and so strongly and securely bolted together, that a minimum calculation showed it to be even stronger than a shaft of solid stone. The ice had been thought of, guarded against and beaten. The ice is first crushed by impact on an outer stone structure, thus broken it grounds in the seven feet of water on the reef, and protects the house from the force of other ice. Ten miles from the nearest land, and with ice and waves having a fetch of one hundred and seventy miles to the southeast, it is in a pitifully unprotected position. In 1874, when the keepers returned for a new season, they found ice piled forty feet around it, even above the door, thirty feet high, and had to cut their way into the structure with axes! Spectacle Reef still stands, saving thousands of lives and millions of property every year in its brief open season.

From the ice fields to the tropics is a long step, yet Fowey Rocks lighthouse, in Florida, was hardly less difficult in construction than Spectacle Reef, albeit the

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difficulties were of a totally different kind. Fowey Rocks lighthouse is a steel structure, built on iron piles driven ten feet into living coral rocks. It is at the extreme north point of the Florida Reefs, in an exposed situation and much afflicted with inclement weather. It was the weather which was the enemy of the builders here, rather than the water or the ice or the rock, as in other cases. The work was so interrupted by stress of weather that at last a platform was built over the foundation piles, twelve feet above the water, and a force of workmen left there for days at a time, working when they could get material, at other times waiting with what patience they could for the weather to allow the supply tugs to tow out new girders and plates for the work to continue. Working in a damp, warm climate, on a small platform, cut off for weeks from intercourse with their kind, struggling with heavy iron and cramped quarters, the men engaged in this work nevertheless completed the entire structure in three years, the platform work taking from March in 1878, when the shears were first set up, to June 15 of that year, when the light was first lighted.

Perhaps one of the most spectacular lighthouse achievements of the service is the light on Tillamook Rock, Oregon. This apparently impossible feat was accomplished in the face of almost unheard-of difficulties. Tillamook Rock is a small, abrupt rock formation one mile from the mainland. The sides are so precipitous and so inhospitable that even in calm weather the landing is exceedingly dangerous, so much so that on the first attempt to put a working party on the rock, the foreman lost his life. The party did not land. It was difficult thereafter to get the skilled labor necessary; but at last, in 1879, nine men succeeded in landing, with provisions and tools. Building themselves a strong shelter bolted to the rock they set to work. Blasting had to be done to get the foundation, supplies and stone and tools and apparatus had to be landed from ships, involving much difficult engineering and many hairbreadth escapes, but after eighteen months of weary labor the structure was completed. One month before the light was completed and lighted, the English bark

THE FOWEY ROCKS LIGHTHOUSE IN FLORIDA

It is a steel structure built on iron piles driven ten feet into coral rocks. Its construction was a very difficult undertaking because of the constant bad weather at this point

Lupata went ashore in a gale, not knowing her nearness to the mainland, and her entire personnel of twenty were drowned. The men on Tillamook Rock heard the officers on board the doomed ship giving orders, and quickly lighted a bonfire, but too late. Had the first party continued in its work, the light would have been finished in time, and the Lupata and twenty lives probably would have been saved.

It is laughable, if it is not pathetic, to think of the lighthouses of a century ago — two centuries ago — and those of the present day. Then any structure on a headland, supporting pitch and oakum fires, or even wood bonfires, flickered a

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MINOT'S LEDGE LIGHTHOUSE, NEAR BOSTON

One of the great stone lighthouses of the world, built in 1860. It is solid stone up to the door, and integral with the rocks of the ledge. It is considered a triumph of monolithic building. The old lighthouse at this point, built of iron piles, was swept away in 1851, a keeper and two assistants losing their lives

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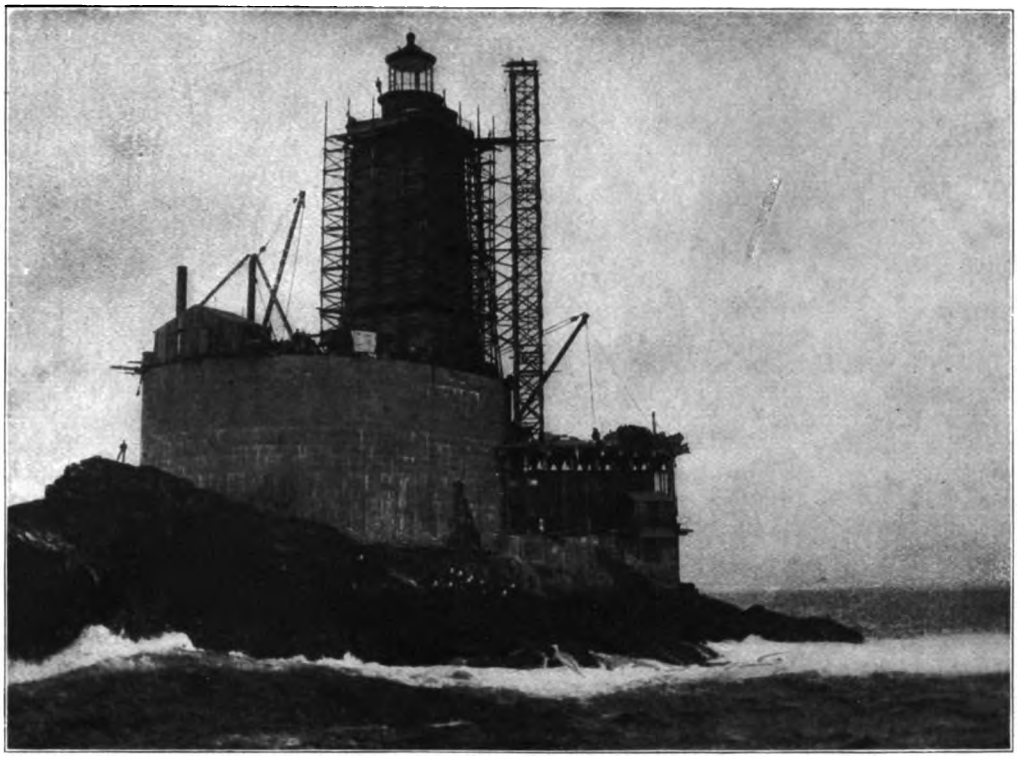

SEAL ROCK LIGHTHOUSE ON ST. GEORGE'S REEF, IN PROCESS OF CONSTRUCTION
It is similar to that on Tillamook Rock, Oregon, built on a dangerous rock formation

fitful light visible a mile or more. It was by means of such lights, built for misleading purposes, that the wreckers, those ghouls of the headlands of Europe, used to lure ships to their destruction. To-day we have the best towers of steel and of masonry that the engineering talent of the world can devise, lighted by oil lamps of the most approved pattern, and with the light collected and transmitted by Fresnal's wonderful lenticular apparatus, for miles and miles. This lenticular cage is nothing more nor less than an arrangement of prisms and glass lenses to such an end that all of the light from the lamp is collected and sent out in one direction, parallel to the sea. But little is lost up or down, and none to the rear if the lighthouse is on the coast; all the light is collected, reflected and refracted where it will do the most good.

A word must be said about other illuminants than oil. Electricity has been tried and found wanting, because of the difficulty of keeping the light in the center of the focal point of these lens cages. The carbons burn unevenly, or the feeding apparatus fails to work, the light drops an inch or so, and instead of the light being sent out parallel with the sea, it is directed upward, or, perhaps, downward. The oil lamp is steady, gives an enormous volume of light and is reliable. In first-order lights the wicks are circular and sometimes six in number, one inside the other, the light impossible to look at and the heat so great that under certain conditions a new glass chimney must be put on every fifteen minutes or so, before the old one quite melts and runs away!

The importance of the light being as reliable as human ingenuity can make it is easily appreciated. The writer asked a veteran lightkeeper of a first-order light what happened when his light went out.

"It doesn't go out," he said. "If it did, I would go too." The lights must burn, and the apparatus must work as provided, there are no "ifs" and "ands."

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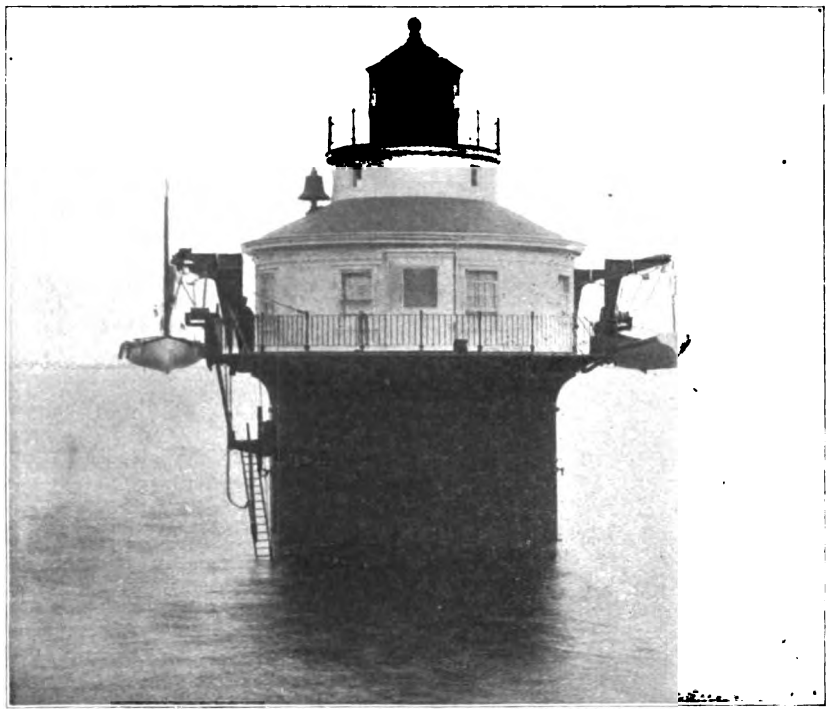
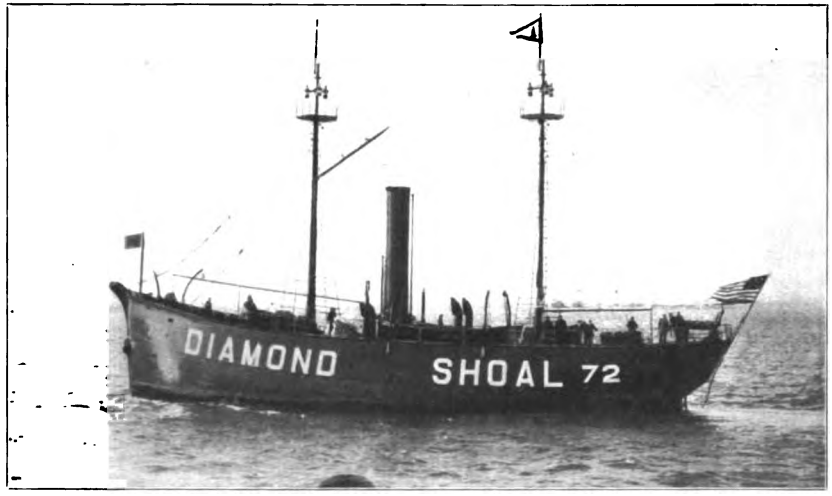


CRAIGHILL CHANNEL FRONT BEACON, CHESAPEAKE BAY

Did space permit there is many a tale of heroism could be told of lamps kept burning under unheard-of difficulties, of broken machinery turned for night after night by man-power that the light might flash as it should flash, of men who have stayed by their trust when the light has been wrecked by storm, of men who have died when their lights were swept away. Only last year in the terrible gulf storm forty-four lighthouses were demolished. It is a hard service and an ill-paid one, but the *esprit de corps* is high, and the reliability of their lights, the honor of



DIAMOND SHOALS LIGHTSHIP

Off Cape Hatteras, where storms and sand-banks make "the Graveyard of the Atlantic." It is the strongest lightship in the world

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their trust, are no less to the keepers than his commercial honor to a cashier, his spotless reputation to a lawyer, her good name to a woman.

Less spectacular but hardly less in importance to the mariner are the lesser lights — the post lights, which have made river navigation and particularly Mississippi River navigation possible at night, the buoys which mark the channels of rivers and harbors, the bell and whistling buoys which mark prominently the places to avoid in fogs and mists, the fog horns, sirens, Daboll trumpets which are an integral part of many lighthouse stations, and the day beacons or ranges by which navigation is assisted. The service includes forty-two steam tenders, the business of which it is to place and replace buoys, take them to buoy depots for painting and repairing, supply light stations with rations and coal, oil and apparatus, and generally maintain the service.

The lighthouses are supplemented by the lightships, of which there are now forty-nine in position and eleven in relief. These vessels are in effect but floating lighthouses, placed where lighthouses can not be built, and guarding reefs and shoals in much-traveled water. The most famous and the most dreaded of these are the Diamond Shoals, those terrible sand-banks off Cape Hatteras, the "Graveyard of the Atlantic." Here, where it storms almost the year round, a ship is constantly maintained: a captain, a mate, two engineers and a crew of fourteen men living for three months at a time a life cut off absolutely from communication of every kind, if one excepts an infrequent mail and the wireless station. What a blessing the naval establishment of a wireless station on these lightships is to the crew, only one who, like the writer, has lived with them, can know. And what a safeguard the wireless is can be easily appreciated when it is stated that a wireless message brought a relief ship to the Nantucket Shoals ship just in time to rescue the crew, last year, before the ship, storm wrecked, went down beneath her men. Half an hour later, indeed, five minutes later, some say, and another tragedy would have been added to the list of marine disasters.

It is of particular interest at this time to know that the Diamond Shoals Lightship may soon be a thing of the past. Early this spring the Department of Commerce and Labor is to decide finally on the exact location for a Diamond Shoals Lighthouse, which Congress has authorized Captain Eels, of Maine, to build at his own expense. Built, maintained and satisfactory for five long years, Captain Eels will receive $750,000 for the work. The thing has been tried before, and only failure resulted, the saw-teeth of Hatteras and the gales of wind making a plaything of the heaviest structure ever towed out to form a foundation.

Captain Eels has a new plan, a new patent, apparently unlimited confidence and sufficient capital, and work is already going forward on the construction of the caisson. When finished, the caisson and its contents will weigh twenty thousand tons, concrete and iron, and when, in the course of time, the iron rusts away, the solid concrete core will be left, a solid rock in the Atlantic, buried thirty feet in the sand, and, according to the engineer's calculations, capable of supporting a one-hundred-and-fifty-foot tower in the heaviest gale that ever blew. Wish the scheme all good luck, you who read, for the successful establishment of this lighthouse means others of similar construction where now the stanch and plucky but sometimes uncertain, lightship is stationed. Lightships go adrift, drag their anchors, and mislead, and their lights can neither be high enough nor powerful enough adequately to warn mariners of the dangers over which they swing.

Lighthouses are put directly into the water, of course. The Chesapeake Bay has a number, all fine examples of caisson work, and all children of the famous Fourteen Foot Bank, of New Jersey, and the equally famous lighthouse at Rothersand, Germany. These were built almost at the same time, the Fourteen Foot Bank house being the first of its kind in the United States. The caisson is floated to the site and sunk, and as the men at work in their atmosphere of compressed air dig out and send up the sand, so sinking the structure, men on top build up, little by little, the tubular structure of iron, which is to be finally filled with

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concrete or stone. Fourteen Foot Bank was so close to an utter failure before it was a success, that even now officials breathe hard when they speak of it! A trifle less skill, a bit more bad weather, the least hitch in the proceedings, and Fourteen Foot Bank might have cost a dozen lives and buried ignominiously beneath the water the hopes and ambitions of the Board and the engineers who built.

The timber caisson was forty feet square and had built upon it an iron cylinder thirty-five feet in diameter and eighteen feet high. When the structure was sunk — a difficult operation and one in which the six-foot tide played an important part — but sixteen inches of iron cylinder remained above the water. Had there been more than eighteen feet at first the structure would have been top heavy. Less, and the water would have poured into the cylinder when it sunk. *And it did not sink level!* The scour of the currents had eaten away the bottom and the shaft leaned twelve degrees. Had there been a sudden storm, had the tide not been calculated to a hair's breadth as to its time, had plenty of broken stone not been at hand for ballast, this account might have had a different ending. As it was, the stone, loaded on the upper side, slowly righted the structure, additional plates were immediately put on, building up the cylinder, a hole was cut in the caisson so that the water rose and fell with the tide and the tide could not lift the structure, and then all was a question of detail. The structure is now the model for monolithic caisson concrete base lighthouses. It was built in record time, at a cost of less than $125,000 ($50,000 less than the appropriation) and has stood since 1887, when it was lighted, a monument to this kind of engineering.

The Hatteras lighthouse, as proposed, is on somewhat similar lines, save that the entire caisson is to be iron, with double walls in which ballast can be put, a hundred feet in diameter and eighty high, and to contain inside its own sinking plant. Whether this scheme will work, whether at last mankind is to erect a seemingly frail structure which can successfully defy the winds and waves which have reigned supreme off Hatteras since the world began, who can say? But if pluck and skill can do it, it will be done. Perhaps nothing which has ever been done in lighthouse engineering will be watched with greater interest than this desperate attempt for the mastery of the Diamond.

It is difficult, in the space permitted a story of this character, to do justice to the service, to the men who make it, and the Board which runs it. But a comparison with foreign services shows much in our favor, and it should be a point of pride with every one who cares for the good name of his country that the United States provides its aids to navigation absolutely free to all, not only to our own seamen but to those of foreign nations as well. France and Spain do likewise, all honor to them, but other countries, and particularly Denmark and Belgium and even old England, exact a light-due from every vessel passing in sight of a light on their shores.

Not only in this liberal policy, but in apparatus — much of which is purchased from France, the leader of the world in lighthouse optical supplies; in building — by the most famous engineers in the world, our own; in personnel — the native American with his bulldog courage and his inborn fidelity to a trust imposed; and in management — by officers of our army and navy, the service stands supreme. That it is not better than it is and larger, is because the appropriations do not come fast enough for the work planned; that it is as good as it is, and as good as it can be, is because of the great skill employed, the high aims and the unselfish devotion to the cause of those who serve upon the Board or in any and all of the lesser capacities of the service.

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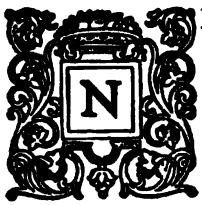
DIVIDING A RIVER BY TREATY

THE GOVERNMENTS OF THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO FINALLY AGREE ON AN EQUITABLE DIVISION OF THE WATERS OF THE RIO GRANDE

BY

ADELE S. BURLESON



EGOTIATIONS looking to an equitable distribution of the waters of the Rio Grande between Mexico and the United States were brought to a conclusion December 12 with the ratification by the Mexican Senate of a convention between the two countries. The matter involved has been the subject of careful consideration by the State Department and of prolonged discussion by Congress, and its amicable adjustment after an agitation of sixteen years evidences the positive friendliness existing between the two countries.

The varied subjects necessarily arising for consideration between border countries have been the occasion of numerous conventions between Mexico and the United States, but the present treaty is the only one bearing upon the vested rights of both to the water of the Rio Grande. Flowing for the greater part of its course through rainless regions, its water has always been essential to plant life there, and the first explorers of America found the Indian using it for the irrigation of his corn. Its normal flow is irregular and comparatively small, but from April through June it becomes a channel for the outpouring of melted snows, which, if accompanied by rain, results in a disastrous flood. To store and utilize these flood waters for the benefit of Mexico and the United States is the object of the recent convention.

Forming for hundreds of miles the border line between the United States and Mexico, the river has been a frequent subject of treaty articles and resurvey, in the effort, each time, to define the boundary line more clearly, but until recently no conflict had arisen between the two peoples as to their relative right to use the water. Each, without reference to the other, had taken water from the river's flow, measuring the quantity only by the individual's need. Mexican and American alike had turned the water into ditches and by its aid produced his crop even in the most arid western regions.

Two decades since, the El Paso Valley was covered with vineyards, orchards and alfalfa fields yielding valuable returns to its flourishing agricultural population. To-day there remain scarcely ten per cent of its rural community, and the dying trees and parching fields proclaim its diminishing planting interests. This change is due to an increasing lack of water which has finally resulted in rendering the Rio Grande a dry bed for five hundred miles of its length in the vicinity of the City of El Paso. Without water the river valley becomes a desert, and although a season of excessive drought occurring at intervals of six or seven years is usual in the El Paso Valley, there was formerly no lack of water at other times. Besides the usual flowage there, the farmers could depend upon the spring and summer flood waters with which to irrigate their crops during a period of a hundred or more days when an abundant water supply was most needed.

The deplorable change that has taken place in this fertile valley is due to the diversion of the waters of the upper Rio Grande and its tributaries by the people of Colorado and New Mexico. With the increase in their population more and more water has been diverted by means of ditches and dams to the use of their farmers, bringing to them a wonderful

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prosperity, but to those in the lower valley failing crops and final ruin.

Following her realization of the gravity of the situation Mexico filed with the State Department protests against this preëmption of the water, claiming that her own title dated back three centuries to the time of the earliest Spanish settlement at Paso del Norte, and to a later period when northern New Mexico and Colorado were without a single citizen. Recognizing the justness of her position, the State Department took up the matter with the result that Congress, in 1890, passed a concurrent resolution proposing the construction of an international dam at or near El Paso for the storing of the waste waters of the Rio Grande for irrigating purposes. To this end a commission was appointed, and competent engineers made surveys and drew up plans and specifications, but before they could be passed upon and final action determined, the people of New Mexico, alarmed for their own prosperity, organized a company under the laws of the Territory for the construction of a storage dam on the upper stretch of the Rio Grande.

The effect of this was to excite the people of the lower valley to still further protest, which resulted in throwing the matter into the courts through injunction proceedings instituted against the New Mexico company by the Attorney-General of the United States. It was held that the courts had no jurisdiction in the matter and that Old Mexico was entitled to no redress for damages incurred through impounding the waters of the Rio Grande in New Mexico, unless such storage of water should affect the navigability of the river, a condition secured to Mexico by treaty right with the United States. Argument developed that the Rio Grande is navigable only from its mouth to a distance of a few hundred miles and could in no wise be affected by a storage dam constructed in New Mexico.

This decision relegated the question to the ground of international comity and became the subject of much diplomatic correspondence. Mexico's claims for indemnity climbed into the millions. Texans joined in the protest against the devastation threatened by the Elephant Butte Dam in New Mexico, which, financed by private capital and controlled by private interests, could hardly be expected to recognize or respect the riparian rights of the people of the El Paso Valley unless these were secured to them by law.

The agitation culminated in legislation enacted by Congress appropriating money for the construction of an international dam at or near El Paso. By its provisions Old Mexico's hereditary title to the waters of the Rio Grande are acknowledged and in liquidation of her claims against the citizens of the United States she is to receive an equable share of the impounded water. By another clause of the bill, New Mexico was prohibited from building a dam within the limits of the territory as, in the opinion of engineering experts, the torrential flow of the river, due to melting snows at its source, was insufficient to fill two large reservoirs.

Unprotected from preëmption of the water by Colorado on the north, forbidden to store it for her own use, her Elephant Butte Dam (already under way) legislated out of existence, it is not surprising that a storm of indignation swept over New Mexico, as she saw herself thus barred from all possible future progress along agricultural lines. It is true she had viewed with calmness the dwindling prosperity of her neighbors lower down the river, but she was fully alive to the exigencies of her own case and bitterly resented this positive curtailment of her agricultural development. But relief was at hand and she has been rescued from her unhappy position through the operation of the Reclamation Act which during the last Congress was extended to the Rio Grande and places all the engineering problems involved in the construction of the international dam under the control of the Reclamation Service.

In its last report, Engle, a point half a mile south of the old Elephant Butte Dam in New Mexico, was recommended by the consulting engineers over the proposed El Paso site as affording a larger storage capacity, less surface for evaporation, less valuable land for the reservoir than that which would be inundated at El Paso, and what is of paramount importance to the New Mexicans, it is

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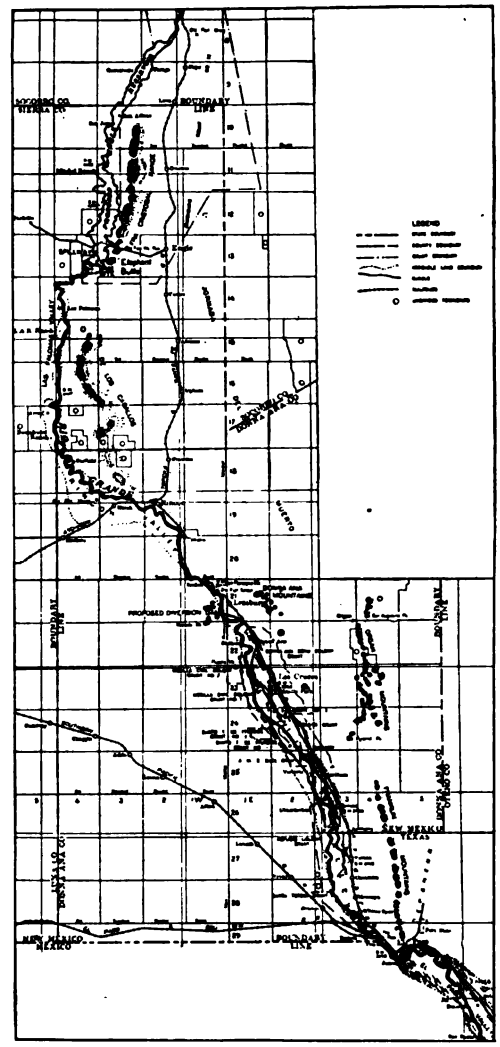
proposed to furnish enough water not only for Old Mexico and Texas but also for the irrigation of New Mexico's fertile valleys. This recommendation was accepted, the people of the Territory are pacified, and Texas and Mexico will still be supplied with all the water they had expected to receive.

By the actual terms of the convention, ratified at Washington on January 16, the United States is pledged to deliver to Mexico sixty thousand acre-feet of water annually in the bed of the Rio Grande at the old Mexican canal, "Acequia Madre" (mother of ditches), just above the City of Juarez. All expense of storing, measuring and delivering the water is to be met by the United States, but in case of extraordinary drought or serious accident to the irrigating system, the supply to Mexico shall be diminished in the same proportion as it is diminished in the United States. Mexico, on her part, waives all claims to the waters of the Rio Grande at any point below Juarez, and makes no further reclamation for wrongs suffered through a diversion of the water either in the past or the future.

To make the treaty operative and enable our government to meet its obligations to Mexico, an appropriation of a million dollars, to be paid out of the general revenue of the United States, was secured from Congress during the closing days of the short session. This represents the government's proportionate part of the cost of the irrigation project by which Mexico is to obtain water for the irrigation of her land, and, being immediately available, insures the active inauguration of the work.

It is reasonable to suppose that with the completion of the dam at Engle the conditions of the treaty will be faithfully carried out under government control. As the balance of the total cost of construction, estimated at $7,200,000, is to be met by the Reclamation Fund, of which no part is at present available, prominent and public-spirited citizens of Texas and New Mexico, participants under the Reclamation Act, are asking if the necessary money to complete the work may not be advanced from the



MAP SHOWING THE LOCATION OF THE STORAGE DAM FOR THE WATER OF THE RIO GRANDE

Treasury of the United States, to be repaid as the Fund is reinforced from the sale of public lands, by which it is created, and from the annual rental paid by water-takers in those States where irrigation works are already in operation.

In the meantime, those who are patriotically disposed will rejoice in the fairness of our country's position toward her own people and those of Mexico, and regard this latest convention as an expression of national justice and good will to both.

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BOOKS AND READING

"The Silent Door"

By William Cleaver Wilkinson

Miss Wilkinson is the daughter of Professor Wilkinson, the well-known poet and critic. At our suggestion he has consented to write this brief note.

Let me frankly say at once that "The Silent Door"* seems to me a very noteworthy piece of fiction. I venture no prediction as to its success with the reading public, but this I may unhesitatingly affirm: It is worthy, by many separate but conspiring claims, of a fortune far better than that of the ephemeral "best seller." In the first place, its style, though certainly not flawless, has in general distinction enough to constitute it true literature. In the second place, there are in it many salient brilliancies of expression to delight and dazzle the lover of such. Again there are deep divinations of motive and character that open surprising glimpses into the arcana of the human heart. Once more, there are descriptions of nature betraying poet's observation and poet's love, together with poet's command of word and phrase to fit—descriptions that I should hardly know where to look to find surpassed for vividness and for fidelity of visualizing effect. Yet further, there is a pervasive play of wit and humor, never caustic, never even ungenial, though often enlivening a turn of sage aphoristic reflection not without its medicinal purging virtue for the weaknesses of human nature. It is perhaps to be reckoned an element of value in the book, as certainly it is an element of interest, that it contains an incidental representation — revelation it may almost be called—of theatrical business self-evidencingly true to the life and incomparably picturesque. The same in measure may be said of the more momentary light thrown on artistic Bohemia in New York. These features in the work presuppose personal experience on the author's part that it required some unusual spirit of adventure in her to seek and to obtain. (Dr. Penrith—the gracious "Grandfather" of the story, would have shaken his head gravely at the suggestion of the author's undertaking such a quest.) The pictures produced, while not unsympathetic, seem to exhibit a sane, detached, even critical, attitude on the author's part toward these two worlds and their denizens. I ought not to omit mention of the peculiarly apt and effective characterizations of persons which make these live to the reader's imagination. It is to be added that there runs through the story a vein of child life and character in portraiture and narration, finer, more piquant, than anything else of the sort with which I remember to have met in all the literature of fiction.

There remains to be noted the dénouement, the catastrophe, of the narrative. This, read in the proper mood, is irresistibly pathetic and powerful. The strand of quaint homeliness and humanity, having somewhat the effect of humor, that is braided into the pathos of the closing scene, indefinitely enhances the power of it.

As to the faults of the book. It really has faults, faults of diction, faults of construction, faults of irrelevance, faults of fancy indulged to the verge, or beyond the verge, of the fantastic. (These last faults spring from the vice of a virtue in the author. For she has a most fruitful fancy, creative often of exquisite beauty and charm.) But I have exhausted my allotment of space in pointing out imperfectly the merits of the book. Its faults I can only thus recognize without exemplifying. I must however say, and say very emphatically, that the proofreading has been done in a manner that leaves much to be desired.

* "The Silent Door." By Florence Wilkinson, author of "Kings and Queens," "The Far Country," etc. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co. Price, $1.50.

Robert Morss Lovett's first volume, "Richard Gresham," which appeared a couple of years ago, was given a welcome which is seldom given a book that is a real book. It is with expectation, therefore, that one takes up his second volume,

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"A Winged Victory" (Duffield & Co., $1.50). Like its predecessor, this story is biographical. It is that of a young girl, the daughter of a Chicago speculator, who spends several years in college and marries a poetic genius who shoots himself in order that she may marry the man she discovers she really loves. But the volume is something more than a mere story. There is a reality in the characters and an optimism in Dora's view of the world that give it health. Mr. Lovett has made the book center about its heroine, but his most distinct character is that of Vance Sterling, the poet husband. This is true probably because it is easier to represent character a little out of drawing than one intended to be normal. The book has no particular plot, but is rather a collection of exceedingly well-done episodes that have been brought together on its main theme, namely, that the world is not to be considered cynically, but to be regarded as good. The book's faults are those which are inherent in such a method of treatment. Particularly does the lack of unity appear at dramatic crises as where there is developed the motive which led to Sterling's suicide. In a word, Mr. Lovett has given us in this volume that which promises well for the time when he shall make use of a plot that will give free scope to his exceptional ability to portray character.

Something like a year ago Kate Douglas Wiggins's "Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm" added a new girl to literature. Mrs. Wiggins now publishes "New Chronicles of Rebecca" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., $1.50). This is something other than the conventional sequel. It is rather a collection of stories which might have been included in the former volume. In this Mrs. Wiggins has shown the true artistic sense. The reading public is not interested in Rebecca's marriage, and children and grandchildren, but in the girl herself. These new chronicles are as full of charm as their predecessors, and their heroine is the same unspoiled, charming girl.

Mary E. Wilkins Freeman has rather stepped out of character in her latest volume, "The Light of the Soul." It is the story of a young girl who is possessed of the New England conscience, but not of complete common sense. In a highly impossible fashion she finds herself married to a young man with whom she never lives, and, in fact, nobody knows she is married except the minister and a young girl friend. The minister dies and the young girl friend keeps silent, and finally dies too. The young husband, who becomes principal of an academy, falls in love with the heroine's sister, and the heroine is hard put to it. One can imagine the complications in which she finds herself. She, however, is rescued from her trouble by a sort of fairy godmother, upon whom she stumbles in a railway station, and the book ends presumably with the marriage of the principal of the academy to the younger sister of the heroine, while the heroine herself lives delightfully with the fairy godmother. The chief charm of Mrs. Freeman's work has always been its convincing delineation of character. There are certainly episodes in the present volume which show the same excellency; but, as a whole, the volume is prolix and impossible. (Harper's, $1.50.)

Another Zenda-Graustark romance has been written, by William Tillinghast Eldridge, of the succession to the throne of Scarvania, and the volume bears the name of the rightful queen of those parts, "Hilma" (Dodd, Mead & Co., $1.50). She falls in love with the gallant American who tells the story with an unassumed disregard for modesty and grammar that is engaging, and he in return places her where she would be at the last, only to find that he has set her beyond his own reach.

Brand Whitlock has done a number of clever little stories, but in "The Turn of the Balance" (Bobbs-Merrill Company, $1.50) he has given us a book which carries him a long way beyond cleverness. Its key-note is the cruelty of modern law toward the criminal. There has been no more powerful and painful book since Tolstoi's "Resurrection." To read it is to lie awake nights thinking about it; and the worst of it is that Mr. Whitlock knows what he is writing about, and his pictures are drawn from life. It is to be devoutly hoped that the book may serve to arouse such indignation against the method of the sweat-box and the cruelty of police examination of criminals that genuine reform will be instituted.

Fourth of the volumes of the "Brave Heart" series, by Miss Adele R. Thompson, is "Polly of the Pines: A Patriot Girl of the Carolinas" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., $1.25). Little Polly has enough love for freedom in her heart to resist the tradition of her Scotch Tory family, and flees to a paternal uncle whose sympathies were with Washington and against King George. The book has value in directing the attention of the northern child to the fighting done in southern territory during the Revolution, facts the New England writers have obscured.

History and Economics

The Making of America. Edited by Robert La Follette. Ten volumes.

It is not every series of subscription books that the reviewer wants to consider. In too many cases they consist of beautiful paper and inconsequential contents. The present series has the beautiful paper, but it is also possessed of real value. It consists of a number of essays and monographs on the different aspects of the history of the United States. The list of contributors is a guarantee in itself of the value of these papers. Really prominent men of the nation contribute articles on the subjects on which they are themselves authorities. It would be difficult, for example, to find anywhere a better treatment of the growth of the nation than that given by John R. Commons, with its illustrations and charts. The range of articles is also commendable, and in addition to those which deal with immigration and politics are included a number of illuminating essays on education, art, literature, business, labor, the army and navy. The scientific history of America is also discussed by such men as Nikola Tesla, Alexander Graham Bell and Thomas A. Edison, and covers pretty nearly everything from pins to turbine engines.

In fact, the more one examines the series, the

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more convinced one becomes of its real value. It is a compendium of information which was well conceived, and is so altogether readable as to make it of real value for any man's library. There is no field of our national development that it does not treat soberly and intelligently.

The Practice of Diplomacy. John W. Foster. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. 381. $3.

This volume is a companion to "A Century of American Diplomacy," by the same author, and treats in a popular manner of the procedure of diplomacy. The Diplomatic and Consular services are discussed, the functions and duties of diplomatic officials, treaties, arbitration, and international claims, all in an attractive style and with an abundance of illustrations derived chiefly from American diplomatic history, and from the personal experience of the writer. The general reader will find the volume of more than usual interest. A sufficient citation of authorities is added to make the volume of value to the student, and a bibliography of the authorities cited and an index will add to its usefulness. No one is better fitted to write such a book than Mr. Foster, and he has acquitted himself of the task very successfully.

The Political History of England. Vol. IV, 1377-1485. By C. Oman, M.A., Chichele Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford. Longmans, Greene & Co., 1906. Pp. xvi, 525. With three maps.

Professor Oman has been assigned what is confessedly one of the most difficult periods of English history from the point of view of the scholar. The chronicles, so abundant in the earlier periods, not only decline in literary value, degenerating at last into meagerest annals, but as the years pass by, they finally cease altogether. There is an abundance of official documents stored away in the record office, but the publications so generously carried forward under the patronage of the British government for the service of students have as yet hardly touched the fifteenth century. These documents therefore have not only not been printed, they have not even been calendared.

Professor Oman has accepted the limitations imposed upon him by his particular field. He makes no attempt to sift the volumes of correspondence, state papers, private historiographies, diaries and account books, still unprinted; he heralds no new material; he does not even claim to set out the old commonplaces in new light. In some cases, as in his view of Richard III., he seems inclined to return almost to the old caricatures of Thomas Moore and Edward Hall. The book is valuable, however, in presenting a well-balanced, consistent and readable record of one of the darkest and most puzzling periods of English history.

The Spirit of Labor. By Hutchins Hapgood. New York: Duffield & Co. Pp. 410, $1.50 net.

In this volume Mr. Hapgood has produced a companion for his "Autobiography of a Thief." As in the case of its predecessor he undertook to make it an autobiography of the labor leader, but unlike the criminal the labor leader did not care to talk about himself. He was interested in the Cause, not in his own experiences. Mr. Hapgood therefore has been forced to use a narrative medium which is better than that of the autobiography, for it has enabled him to use various reflections and experiences of his own. Very often these are more valuable than the ideas of his hero, for Mr. Hapgood has studied the labor situation of Chicago at close range. He has done his best to maintain the impartial attitude of an observer, but it is clear that while he was investigating he was also captivated by the life according to temperament which he found among the people with whom he dwelt. The book to a certain extent is therefore a labor tract. It is not interested in the machinery of labor unions but rather in the spirit which inspires it, and this spirit Mr. Hapgood finds is not that of socialism but of philosophical anarchy. It has to be admitted that his conclusion is somewhat startling, for the anarchy which he discovers runs rather toward the breaking down of marriage ties than toward the breaking down of the government.

Mr. Hapgood has undoubtedly described accurately one of the various strata in the labor movement, but it would be a mistake to generalize his findings to the point where they represent the labor movement as a whole. The anti-capitalistic spirit which he describes is undoubtedly predominant, but the philosophic individualism or anarchy is the property of certain radicals rather than of the movement as a whole.

The volume is one that should be read by every thoughtful person. It is a real book.

A new edition of Benjamin Ellis Martin's and Charlotte M. Martin's "The Stones of Paris in History and Letters" (Scribners, $2), with added illustrations and clear type will be welcomed as affording after several years the best guide for the student of letters and history in the French capital. The book was written with painstaking love and devotion, and its handling of topics, first of all chronologically, then with reference to the great literary ages and their leading exponents, still commends itself.

Two compact volumes, "A Short History of Ancient Times," and "Of Mediæval and Modern Times" (Ginn & Co., each $1.10 net) are required for Professor Myer's revised general history, the apparatus of the two books being now differentiated so that each assumes independence. On the excellence of a work so generally used it is needless to pass comment at this time.

Webster's International Dictionary. Springfield, Massachusetts: G. & C. Merriam Company. Pp. 2,380. $10.50, with patent index.

The present edition of this indispensable work contains something like twenty-five thousand new words and phrases, which bring it quite up to date. The work is a standard in the Government Printing-office, as well as in the United States Supreme Court, and has in it a large amount of information quite other than a mere definition of words. Peculiarly interesting is its treatment of proper names and its identification and description of various literary names.

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Religion and Philosophy

The Realities of Christian Theology. By Clarence A. Beckwith. Houghton, Mifflin Co., $2 net.

Prof. Beckwith interprets Christian experience on the basis of the Christian consciousness, relying fully upon the findings of the new psychology and the new ethics. Evolution is recognized as the divine method in nature and human history. The results of modern biblical criticism are approved. No attempt is made to harmonize science and religion, but rather is religion subjected to the scientific test. While following in the main the traditional order of the old dogmatic theologies, the inductive method is employed in a wide generalization from the entire field of Christian experience. Consequently the Scriptures are not used to bolster up some preconceived system of theology, but as the record of the highest type of religious expression, just as he uses the experiences set forth in theologies and confessions. Prof. Beckwith has added another to the many attempts recently made to modernize theology, basing it upon the realities of Christian experience rather than upon a priori principles.

The World Machine: First Phases of Cosmic Mechanism. By Carl Snyder. New York: Longmans, Greene & Co. Pp. xviii, 488, $2.50 net.

There is something splendidly audacious in this new work of Mr. Snyder. His other little book, "New Conceptions of Science," showed him to be a clever, but not an altogether exact popularizer of the work of the scientific investigators. In his present work he undertakes in three volumes, the first of which has now appeared, to traverse nearly the entire field of science. His position is that of the thorough-going materialist. He sees in the universe a machine in which there can be no freedom and no God. The present volume covers the history of cosmological thought from prehistoric man across to the Greek schoolmen, and from modern scientists to the end of the machine. This, he believes, will be the reduction of all matter into two gigantic inert masses. These will collide and smash into primitive nebulous condition again. This will, in turn, contract in the one vast mass of lifeless matter. Beyond that even Mr. Snyder does not venture to prophesy.

To review such a work as this one would need to be something more than a general student of astronomy, physics, biology, chemistry and history of philosophy. The present reviewer does not pretend to be even the amateur omniscience demanded by such a task, nor, for that matter, does Mr. Snyder. His volume is an exceedingly clever, readable piece of scientific journalism, which is likely to be very popular among general readers. There was room for such a work, and it is to Mr. Snyder's credit that he has done it as well as he has. He is at times a good deal more confident about matters than the men who are authorities in the particular field treated, and he has occasionally strayed into strange company, if we are to judge from his bibliography. There is no way of getting at the universe in terms of the machine until one denies the existence of what, for want of a better term, we call personality. Overlook that and materialism is easy. But with personality in the field the machine conception is logically impossible. The volume, notwithstanding its special pleading, is a really remarkable piece of condensation and contains an amount of information which otherwise could be found only in histories of science and encyclopædias.

"Studies in the Book of Job" (Scribner's Sons, $1), by Rev. Francis N. Peloubet, D.D., the well-known writer of Sunday school notes, is a course of study for advanced classes. It is not so much a study of the book of Job as of the problem of suffering with Job as a basis. There is a large amount of illustrative material from other literature, which has a bearing upon the general theme and gives to these studies a homiletic character. The analysis of the poem and the selection of its most significant passages are well adapted to give students a good understanding of its contents.

"A Short History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age," by George Holley Gilbert (The University of Chicago Press, $1), is the latest addition to the admirable "Constructive Series" of Sunday-school text-books. The spirit of enthusiasm for the Scriptures as a book of supreme human interest, a real "book of life," appears in this as in the preceding volumes of the same series. Although intended to be used as a textbook in classes, the book is attractive in typography and in its illustrations. Critical questions are touched lightly, but the references include the masters, and modern scholarship is patent. It will meet the demand of teachers in the colleges and schools, and provides for the need of thoughtful students outside the schools.

Scribner's has published the second volume of Professor Briggs's critical and exegetical commentary on the Book of Psalms. ($2.50.) The present volume covers Psalms LI to CL and is particularly serviceable for its Hebrew index. Like the first volume it has the value of minute scholarship. Professor Briggs's work is sure to become the authoritative commentary on the Book of Psalms for the English-speaking world.

Professor Fullerton, in his "Introduction to Philosophy" (Macmillan, $1.60), has actually made the problems of metaphysics intelligible to the man who is not a metaphysician. The volume is significant in another way. The prevailing tendencies of the day are monistic. Professor Fullerton is dualistic. One might almost say that his main thesis is to show that the testimony of the senses of the plain man is quite as valuable a datum as the formulas of the psychologist. The volume will make an admirable text-book for a college class and can be recommended as a book to be read by the thoughtful person who is capable of a reasonable amount of concentration. If it does not altogether solve ultimate realities it at least gives one a confidence in such realities as one knows one faces.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Casualties.—March 28.—Fire in South Boston, Virginia, destroyed tobacco factories and a large section of the business district. Loss estimated at $1,000,000....Twenty-eight persons killed and one hundred injured in the wreck of a Southern Pacific express train near Colton, California.

—April 5.—A cyclone in Louisiana, Mississippi and Alabama killed twenty persons and destroyed property estimated at $500,000.

Christian Science.—March 12.—The Delaware State Senate passed the bill previously passed by the House, barring from Delaware Christian Science healing and faith cure in lieu of physicians.

Deaths.—March 17.—General Joseph Stockton, volunteer in the war of 1862-5, aged seventy-four.

—March 19.—Thomas Bailey Aldrich, poet and author, aged seventy.

—March 21.—Theodore J. Wint, brigadier-general U. S. A., commanding the Department of the Missouri, aged sixty.

—March 25.—Alexander Beaubien, the first white male child born in Chicago, aged eighty-five.

—March 26.—Daniel M. Taylor, chief of ordnance of the Department of the Lakes, U. S. A.

—March 31.—Galusha A. Grow, Speaker of the House of Representatives, 1861-1863, aged eighty-four.

Education.—March 15.—Dr. George L. Mackintosh elected president of Wabash College.

—March 26.—The General Education Board appropriated to Yale University $300,000; Princeton, $200,000; Bowdoin and Colorado colleges, each $50,000; Miltsaps College, $25,000. A total of $42,500 given to negro schools.

—April 5.—Andrew Carnegie gave $6,000,000 to Carnegie Institute at Pittsburg, $1,000,000 of the gift to be used for the erection of more technical school buildings. The income of $450,000 per annum is for the benefit of the technical school.

Finance. — March 13. — Stock values drop in Wall Street with a shrinkage of over $300,000,000.

—March 14.—Another shrinkage in security values estimated at $450,000,000.

Floods.—March 14.—Floods cause damage in Pittsburg estimated at $10,000,000 and the loss of fourteen lives. Nearly all the down-town section of the city under water. Manufactories suspended business, theaters closed. Many places in Ohio, western Pennsylvania and West Virginia likewise suffering.

—March 15.—Thirty-seven lives lost at points in Ohio and West Virginia. The flood in Pittsburg decreasing. At Parkersburg and Wheeling it was on the increase.

Isle of Pines.—March 8.—The Supreme Court of the United States declared the Isle of Pines to be under the jurisdiction of Cuba and not American territory.

Japanese Exclusion. — March 13. — The San Francisco Board of Education unanimously rescinded the resolution of last October by which Japanese were segregated in the public schools, and adopted an alternative resolution.

Labor.—April 4.—The Appellate Court decided that Charles Gilhooley and his companions, of Chicago, were guilty of conspiracy to injure Christ J. Carlstrom and must serve terms in penitentiary.

Land Frauds.—March 18.—Four Nebraska cattlemen sentenced to imprisonment for land frauds.

Municipal. — March 12. — The president and members of the Board of Public Works of Columbus, Ohio, the president and superintendents of the Cleveland-Trinidad Paving Company, the local manager of the American Sewer Pipe Company and two city officials indicted for bribery.

—March 20.—Sixty-five indictments for bribery against Abe Ruef, the political "boss" of San Francisco, returned by grand jury, and ten against P. V. Halsey, formerly head of the Chicago Telephone system and general agent of the Pacific States Telephone and Telegraph Company.

Oklahoma Constitution.—March 15.—The constitutional convention completed, after 115 days of work, the constitution for the new state. The people will vote thereon August 6 next.

Philanthropy.—March 12.—Mrs. Russell Sage gave $10,000,000, to be known as the Sage Foundation and to be devoted to the improvement of social and living conditions in the United States. She appointed as trustees Robert W. de Forest, Cleveland H. Dodge, Daniel C. Gilman, John M. Glenn, Miss Helen Gould, Mrs. William B. Rice and Miss Louise L. Schuyler.

—March 20.—Mrs. Russell Sage gave $150,000 to the American Seamen's Friend Society for the erection of a sailors' home and institute.

—March 27.—Anne Thomson, Frank G. and Clark Thomson, children of Frank Thomson, once president of the Pennsylvania Railroad, gave $120,000 to establish the Frank Thomson scholarships for affording a technical education to sons of "living or deceased employees of all the lines of railroad so as to better enable them to qualify themselves for employment by the company." The fund will maintain eight men in college.

Railroads.—March 27.—Indictments rendered by the grand jury against Ira A. McCormick, general superintendent, and Alfred H. Smith, vice-president of the New York Central Railroad, on a charge of manslaughter in the second degree for the wreck of the Brewster express, February 16, 1907, by which twenty-four persons lost their lives.

—March 28.—The Supreme Court of Minnesota upholds the issue of $60,000,000 stock by the Great Northern Railroad Company, enjoined by the State's Attorney-General.

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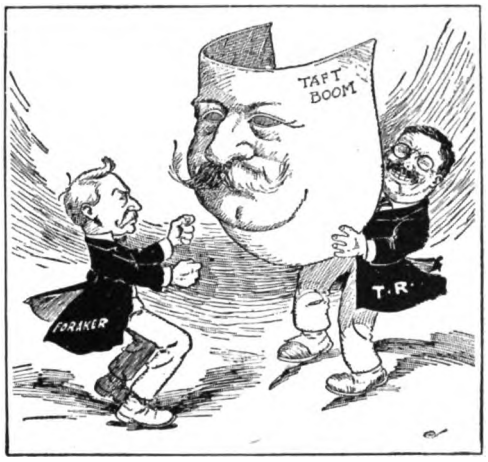

IN OHIO
Jamieson in Pittsburg *Dispatch*

—April 4.—A strike on the western railroads averted by a compact arranged by the chairman of the Interstate Commission and the Commissioner of Labor. The trainmen secure an advance in wages of about ten per cent or two per cent less than was demanded. The employees waived the request for a nine-hour day.

—April 5.—Governor Stuart of Pennsylvania signed bill making maximum fare two cents on railroads within the State.

Religion.—March 20.—The Tri-Church Council, composed of representatives of the Congregational, United Brethren and Methodist Protestant churches, met in Chicago, to agree on terms of union.

—April 4.—The will of John Alexander Dowie named John A. Lewis as his successor in the leadership of Zion.

Senatorial.—March 27.—The Illinois Senate, by a vote of 35 to 3, adopted a resolution calling on Congress to convoke a constitutional convention and favoring election of United States Senators by direct vote.

Porto Rico

Independence.—March 16.—The Porto Rico House of Delegates unanimously adopted a resolution asking for self-government for the island.

Honduras

War.—March 14.—The Nicaraguans were victorious in two encounters with Hondurans and captured seventy officers and soldiers.

—March 18.—General Bonilla, president of Honduras, started for Segovia, Nicaragua, with troops and two detachments of Nicaraguan revolutionists. The government of Guatemala refused a request made by Honduran revolutionists to be permitted to cross the frontier and invade Honduras. The port of Trujillo, Honduras, captured by Nicaraguan naval forces. United States gunboats were at Central American ports to guard American interests threatened by the war.

—March 20.—American marines landed at Trujillo, Honduras, for protection of Americans and their property. The Nicaraguan forces on their way to Tegucigalpa, the capital of Honduras.

—March 24.—The Nicaraguan forces captured Choluteca, Honduras, held by the Honduran and Salvadorean troops. President Bonilla fled by boat.

—March 25.—President Bonilla reorganized the Honduran army. Nicaraguan forces captured Tegucigalpa, capital of Honduras.

—March 26.—Trujillo recaptured by Honduran and Salvadorean forces; two hundred Nicaraguan soldiers and considerable war supplies captured.

—March 27.—Tegucigalpa abandoned. The Bonilla government no longer exists. City occupied by revolutionary forces. Philip R. Brown, secretary of the American Legation, assumed charge, with the aid of the consuls, and preserved order.

Guatemala

Assassination.—April 7.—General Manuel Barrillas, ex-president of Guatemala, killed by an assassin in the City of Mexico. He was sixty-two years of age and a strong possibility for the next presidency of his country.

Salvador

War.—March 18.—This country allied itself with Honduras in the war with Nicaragua. [See Honduras.]

—March 26.—Salvador requested Mexico to intervene and endeavor to secure peace, and stated that she was withdrawing her troops from Honduras territory.

Venezuela

Death.—March 26.—General Luciano Mendoza, one of the founders of the Liberal party and formerly president of the State of Aragua. He died in exile.

British Empire

Deaths.—March 2.—Sir August Manns, musician and orchestral conductor, aged eighty-two.

Irish Crimes Act.—March 13.—The House of Commons, by a vote of 252 to 83, repealed the Irish Crimes Act.

Metric System.—March 22.—The House of Commons, by a vote of 150 to 118, rejected the bill to introduce the metric system into Great Britain.

Canada

Railroads.—March 18.—The Railway Commission ordered the Canadian Pacific and Grand Trunk Railroads to reduce passenger rates to three cents a mile within sixty days. Other roads requested to conform or give reason why they can not do so.

France

Church and State.—March 20.—The Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 370 to 164, adopted a motion for the appointment of a commission to examine and make public the contents of documents seized at the Nunciature in Paris.

Death.—March 14.—Maurice Grau, impresario, aged fifty-eight.

—March 18.—Pierre Berthelot, scientist, Senator and former Minister of Foreign Affairs, aged eighty.

Morocco.—March 25.—The cabinet decided to send troops to occupy Oudja until the Moorish

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government gives satisfaction for the murder of Dr. Mauchamp. Armored cruisers sailed for Tangier.

—March 27.—Germany and Spain acquiesced formally in the occupation of Oudja by French troops.

Italy

Death.—March 29.—Cardinal Luigi Macchi, renowned as a scholar, aged seventy-five.

German Empire

Death.—March 25.—Professor Von Bergman, a noted surgeon.

Belgium

Cabinet.—March 20.—Acute disagreement between King Leopold and his cabinet in regard to concessions made by the ministers to the parliamentary Congo commission.

Dutch East Indies

War.—March 15.—The Dutch troops captured an important rebel stronghold on the Island of Celebes. The rebels lost 280 killed and 275 captured, 200 of the latter being women.

Roumania

Cabinet.—March 24.—The conservative cabinet resigned and a liberal ministry formed under the premiership of M. Sturdza.

Revolt.—March 20.—The peasant uprising spread over Upper Moldavia, in an effort to drive out the Jewish lessees of the holdings of absentee landlords and seize the lands, on the plea that they have suffered from extortion. The government ordered General Tell to quell the revolt by force of arms.

—March 21.—Peasants surrounded the administrative palace at Vasuli, intending to demolish the building, but troops intervened. At Jassy there was a conflict between the peasants and the troops. All the army reserves have been called to the colors by the government.

—March 23.—Several towns and four hundred estates destroyed by peasants.

—March 25.—Pillaging and incendiarism continued in Moldavia. In conflicts with the troops many peasants were killed.

—March 26.—Riots assume proportions of a civil war; 4,000 peasants marching on Bucharest. In two districts 23 landed proprietors killed and 42 villages burned down. At Alexandria, 50 miles from Bucharest, 60 killed and 300 wounded in conflict with the troops. The town placed under martial law. The rioting extended throughout Wallachia.

—March 27.—Fearing civil war, the government, in a proclamation by King Carlos, announced measures to meet the demands of the peasantry, and later, the Chamber of Deputies adopted bills providing for the abolition of several taxes and other measures ameliorating the condition of the peasants. . . Large numbers of peasants killed in Wallachia, Galatz and other places.

—March 29.—The revolt practically suppressed in Moldavia and quieting down in other districts.

—April 3.—Official estimates place material loss caused by the agrarian revolt at $6,000,000.

Russian Empire

Assassination.—March 27.—Dr. Jollos, editor of the *Russki Viedomosti*, an influential Liberal newspaper, shot and killed in Moscow.

Death.—March 19.—Count Vladimir Lamsdorff, formerly minister of foreign affairs, aged sixty-three.

—March 24.—Constantine Pobiedonostseff, ex-procurator-general of the Holy Synod.

Douma.—March 19.—Premier Stolypin submitted to the lower house for consideration a series of bills for development of a constitutional form of government.

—March 22.—A resolution proposed by M. Roditcheff, Constitutional Democrat, for the formation of a famine relief commission, endorsed by Premier Stolypin and passed unanimously in the lower house.

—March 26.—After two days' debate the lower house adopted a preliminary resolution for the abolition of drumhead courts-martial. Only twenty-two extreme reactionists voted in the negative.

—April 4.—Arrival of large bodies of Cossacks and dragoons confirmed the belief that the douma is to be dissolved.

Education.—April 4.—Because of constant conflicts between the prefecture, the faculty and the students, the University of Moscow has been closed for one year.

Finland.—April 5.—In the diet elections the Socialists won 80 out of 200 seats. The old Finns secured 58 seats, Agrarians 13, Swedes 24, and the Young Finns who control the existing government, 25. Nineteen women, of whom nine are Socialists, were elected, the first women elected to any national legislature.

Massacre.—March 17.—Jews massacred at Podihilo, Roumania, near Kishinev, and their houses pillaged.

Persia

Grand Vizier.—March 18.—Mushir-ed-Doubh, grand vizier, resigned because of popular opposition, and the Shah accepted the resignation.

Siam

Treaty. — March 24. — The Franco-Siamese treaty signed. France obtains three provinces: Battanoboug, Hangkor, and Sisophon, about 12,500 square miles, in return for Port Kralt, the recession of Sansai and other minor concessions along the frontier. All outstanding questions advantageously settled for both countries.

Morocco

Anti-Foreign Uprising.—March 24.—Dr. Mauchamp, connected with the French geodetic mission, assassinated, and an attack made upon Europeans in their houses in Morocco City. The Pasha sent troops to drive off the mob and protect the foreigners. [See France.]

—March 27.—The situation in Morocco City serious. Europeans dare not leave their houses without escort. Hostile crowds parade the streets.

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Has it dawned on your home?

A brighter day dawns for the housekeeper. Sapolio makes home radiant ✦ It brightens the work and the worker ✦ ✦ It always "makes light" of housework

SAPOLIO

CLEANS SCOURS POLISHES

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government
Dr. Mauch
gier.
—M
ORATE

NNEN'S
TOILET POWDER

Maytime Flowers

are not more welcome, after Winter's cold and snows, than is **Mennen's Borated Talcum Powder** to the tender raw skin, roughened by the wind of early Spring, of the woman who values a **good** complexion, and to the man who shaves. In the nursery Mennen's **comes first**—the purest and safest of healing and soothing toilet powders.

Put up in **non-refillable boxes**, for your protection. If Mennen's face is on the cover, it's **genuine** and a **guarantee of purity**. Delightful after shaving. Sold everywhere, or by mail 25 cents.

Guaranteed under the Food and Drugs Act, June 30, 1906. Serial No. 1542.

Sample Free

Gerhard Mennen Co.
Newark, N. J.

Try Mennen's Violet (Borated) Talcum Powder. It has the scent of fresh cut Parma Violets.

Connoisseurs have always preferred

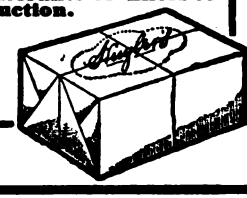
Huyler's

COCOA, VANILLA, PREMIUM AND MILK CHOCOLATE,
As well as Their
CHOCOLATES AND BONBONS

In preference to all others, principally on account of their **PURITY** *and* **FLAVOR.** *That Real Chocolate Flavor (noticeable to such a marked degree), results from the use of Highest Grade Cocoa Beans, scientifically blended* **without addition of any adulterants or fillers to reduce cost of Production.**

Sold at our Stores and by Sales Agents everywhere

Only one Quality: THE HIGHEST



Our Cocoa and Chocolates sold by all Grocers

Don't be an Ostrich

The Ostrich shuts its eyes, shoves its head in the sand, and thinks it is hidden. No use shutting your eyes to facts—read this unsolicited letter—one of thousands received.

THE GEM CUTLERY CO., PHILADELPHIA, March 4, 1907.

Gentlemen:—I take much pleasure in saying that I consider the GEM JUNIOR SAFETY RAZOR the best that I have ever used, and I rather feel that I am an authority on the question of Safety Razors, having been shaving every day with one for the past 19 years. I began with the Star Safety and have bought nearly every new Safety Razor that has come out since, including the Gillette, which I have used for nearly two years. Last summer I bought one of your GEM JUNIOR SAFETY RAZORS, more as a joke than anything else, and it has been so much superior to anything that I have previously used that I do not expect to try any more experiments. I can only add that if a man is not satisfied with the GEM JUNIOR SAFETY RAZOR he is hard to please. Very truly yours,

(Signed) L. H. TAYLOR, JR., Land Title Building.

"Gem" Junior Safety Razor

With Seven Selected Blades $1.00

Set consisting of nickel silver plated frame, combination shaving and stropping handle and 7 keen steel blades in handsome case, **sent prepaid on receipt of price, and if after 10 days' trial you are dissatisfied—your money returned.**

"Gem" Junior Special Set with 12 blades in extra fine case, $1.50

New Blades for Old Ones. The "GEM JUNIOR" blades are unequaled for hardness and edge, but, when dull, if you prefer, instead of stropping, we will send in exchange, 7 new ones for 7 old ones and 25c. Shaving will therefore cost you next to nothing. Order through your dealer, or of us.

Gem Cutlery Co., 34 Reade Street, New York.

The oldest and best safety razor manufacturers. Makers of the "The Gem," "Zinn," and "Gem Junior."

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JUNE 1907 15 CENTS

THE WORLD TO-DAY

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OF ALL SCENTED SOAPS PEARS' OTTO OF ROSE IS THE BEST.

SPIRIT OF THE MONTH

SPRING FEVER PATRIOTISM

The Country Tries to Make itself Believe that it is Interested in the Celebration of an Event it had Forgotten

Socialism Masquerading as Organized Labor Tries to Erect a Murder Trial into a National Issue

The Republican Party Tries to Find a Man to Fit Roosevelt's Mantle

Commencement Orators Try to Frighten us by their Annual Discovery of Portentous Dangers

And the Nation Cares for None of these Things — The Baseball Season has Begun

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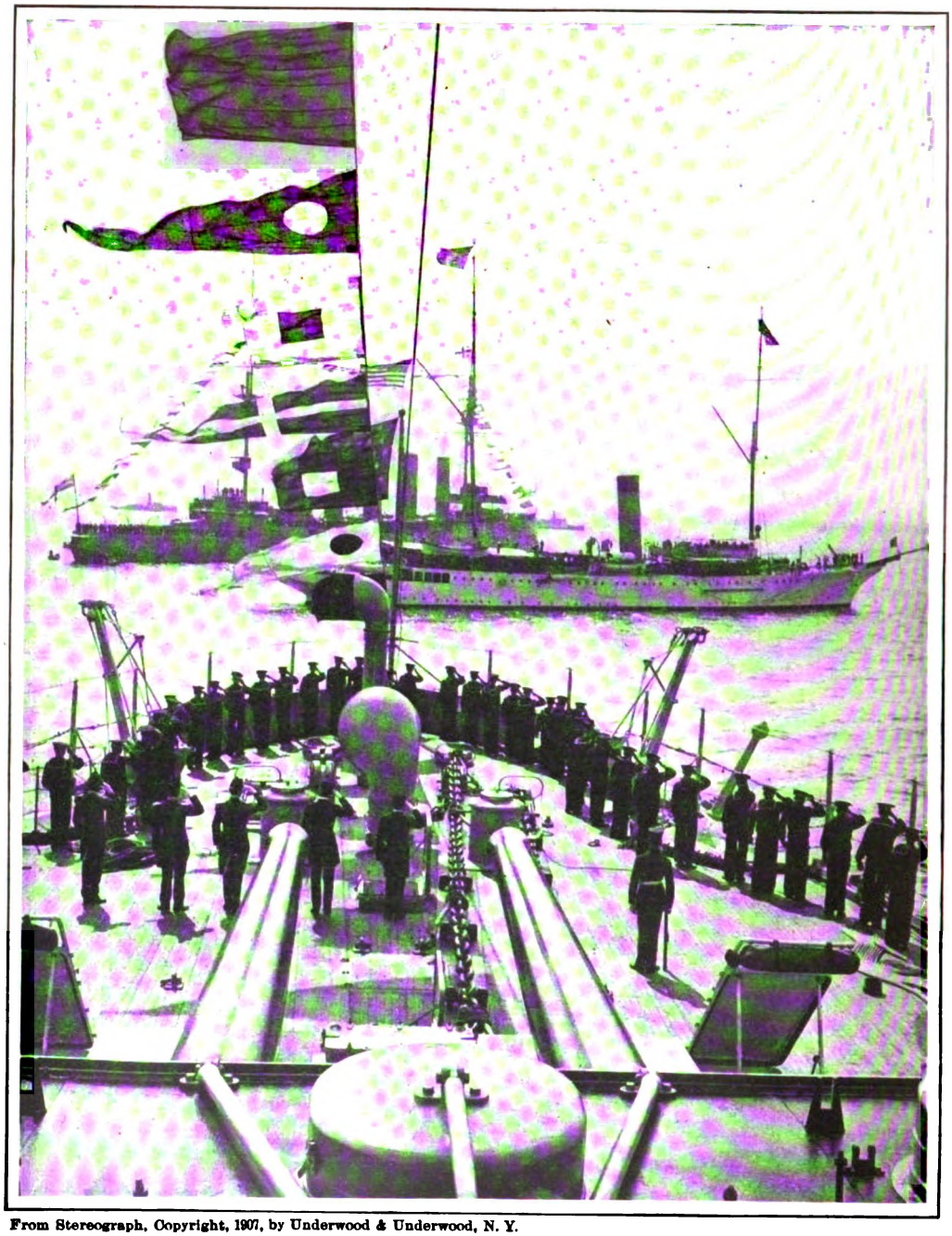

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THE OPENING OF THE JAMESTOWN EXPOSITION

The Mayflower with the President on board passing between the battle-ship Louisiana and the English battle-ship Good-Hope, commanded by Rear-Admiral George Neville

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JUN 3 1907
CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

The World To-Day

VOLUME XII JUNE, 1907 NUMBER 6

Martyrs Made to Order

FOR the past weeks small armies of men have been marching the streets of our cities set on proving to a staring world that labor leaders are being martyred. They mean—or the Socialists who lead them mean—the men on trial for conspiring to murder a former governor of Idaho.

Somebody blew the governor up with a bomb. A man who says he knows says these two martyrs in the making shared in planning the crime.

One would think the issue was simple: let the courts decide whether the charge is true, and then act accordingly.

Organized labor apparently believes that the way to get justice is to assume that justice will not be given. It pronounces a man innocent because he represents a Cause.

The Socialists apparently believe that the way to get justice is to try the case in the newspapers and so make it impossible to get an unprejudiced jury.

Herein is a new rule of procedure: to prove a man innocent, make people believe that he is a martyr.

* * *

Certain captains of industry, and certain men who hope some day to be captains of industry, are also engaged in manufacturing martyrs.

But they do not need to go to Idaho to find their hero. They see

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themselves vicarious sufferers for the cause of watered stocks, bull campaigns, and an exemplary, non-resistant Wall Street.

They, too, have their friends before the courts, charged, not with arranging a bomb so that a man will walk over it and get blown to pieces, but with conspiracies of another sort, and with the destruction of other people's fortunes.

And in their hired, bought, or mortgaged newspapers they cry aloud for sympathy.

* * *

Who is the tyrant that thus makes martyrs of labor leaders in Idaho and of corporations in Illinois, Missouri and New York?

Law.

We want to see the law enforced when it has caught the other man. When it catches us we become martyrs.

* * *

You can not stampede the sane judgment of the American nation by processions carrying red flags or by after-dinner speeches carrying quotations from the Scriptures.

We are mostly plain folks, and plain folks regard martyr-making as a confession of the weakness of one's cause.

The American people are taking law seriously.

Your average man believes that—barring perhaps those whose crimes stamp them as mere beasts—law-breakers should be given every opportunity to prove their innocence. But he does not want to substitute prejudice for justice.

He believes in a square deal all the way around—fair laws, fair trials, fair sentences.

* * *

We want no demagogues to make our laws, to try our cases or to represent our sentiments. We have our sympathies, but we do not want people to bank on them for their own advantage.

And we believe it a gratuitous insult to be told that the impartial application of law will make a martyr of any man—whether his name be Haywood or Harriman.

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Foreign Affairs

The British Colonial Conference

The fourth conference of the premiers of the British colonies and members of their cabinets assembled in London during April and May was an important gathering. The following notable persons were among those present: Dr. Jameson of Cape Colony; General Botha of the Transvaal; Mr. Alfred Deakin of Australia; Sir Joseph G. Ward of New Zealand; Mr. Frederick R. Moore of Natal; Sir Wilfrid Laurier of Canada, and Sir Robert Bond of Newfoundland. The welcome accorded General Botha was significant of the friendly relations now established between the British and the Boers of the Transvaal. Australia now seems to be leading in the agitation for greater independence for the colonies. A resolution presented by Premier Deakin urged that the colonies be given representation on the Imperial Council of Defense, as the information and advice they can offer on local questions would be valuable. A more intimate knowledge of the colonies by the colonial secretary was recommended. The plan of such a council of defense was finally approved by the conference, but it did not favor the continuance of colonial financial contributions toward the general naval expenditure of the British empire. It suggested that the colonies might instead efficiently maintain a certain number of ships supplied by the mother country. In addressing the assemblage, Mr. Asquith stated that the government could not grant tariff reciprocity to the colonies. The name of the conference is henceforth to be the Imperial Conference, with meetings every four years, presided over by the British prime minister, by virtue of his office. The premiers of self-governing colonies and the British colonial secretary are to be ex-officio members, and the respective governments will each have the right to appoint other members. One vote will be allowed to each government. A permanent staff under the direction of the colonial secretary will act for the conference between sessions.

WHEN KUROKI VISITS THE WHITE HOUSE IT WILL BE THE PRESIDENT'S BUSY DAY

Bradley, in the Chicago *Daily News*

Home Rule for Ireland

The long-promised Irish bill has at last been introduced by the English government. Naturally it has aroused much feeling and discussion. It disappoints the Irish themselves, as it does not give them all they desire. But this was not to be expected. It is a half-way measure which its supporters say is a step in the direction of the self-government for which the Irish Nationalists are hoping. The latter have called a big convention to meet in Dublin, May 21 and 22, to consider the bill. The chief

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GENERAL KUROKI AND STAFF, OF THE JAPANESE ARMY, WITH GENERAL ARTHUR MacARTHUR, U. S. A.

General Kuroki, one of the commanders in the Russo-Japanese war, is visiting America as the representative of Japan to the Jamestown Exposition

First row (from left to right)—Colonel M. Ota, Colonel Chamberlin, Lieutenant-General Y. Kigoshi, General Baron Kuroki, General MacArthur, General O. E. Wood, Captain Tanaka.

Second row (from left to right)—Captain G. Kobayashi, Surgeon T. Tanura, Captain Marquis J. Saigo, Major T. Yoshida, Lieutenant-Colonel M. Nagayama, Major General M. Umezwa.

features of the proposed act are the vesting of the administration in a council of 106 members, thirty-two of whom are to be elected, and twenty-four to be nominated by the crown for the first year and later by the lord-lieutenant of Ireland. To this council will be given control of the finances — but without power to levy taxes — public works, education, local government works and agriculture. The imperial government retains full control of the supreme court, constabulary, land commission and prisons board. An Irish fund to the amount of $20,000,000 annually will be created if the bill passes. Any British subject may hold the office of lord-lieutenant of Ireland, all religious disability being removed. Mr. John E. Redmond said that if the measure proved workable his party would gladly accept it. The great interest attaching to the bill brought together a very full house. The entire ministry was present and the galleries were crowded with a notable assemblage. The bill passed its first reading by a vote of 416 to 121 under closure.

Lord Cromer and Egypt

Great regret has been felt over the retirement of Lord Cromer after twenty years of service as head of the English administration in Egypt. Increasing ill health has compelled him to this step. From bankruptcy to prosperity Lord Cromer has developed Egypt, and the genius that has accomplished marvels for that country consists largely of a patient persistence in the face of great obstacles. He ruled Egypt for the Egyptians in the broadest sense, and the native has been given advantages and opportunities which under national rule he never had. Sir Eldon Gorst, who has served as financial adviser to the Khe-

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dive and has been under Lord Cromer for many years, is to succeed him.

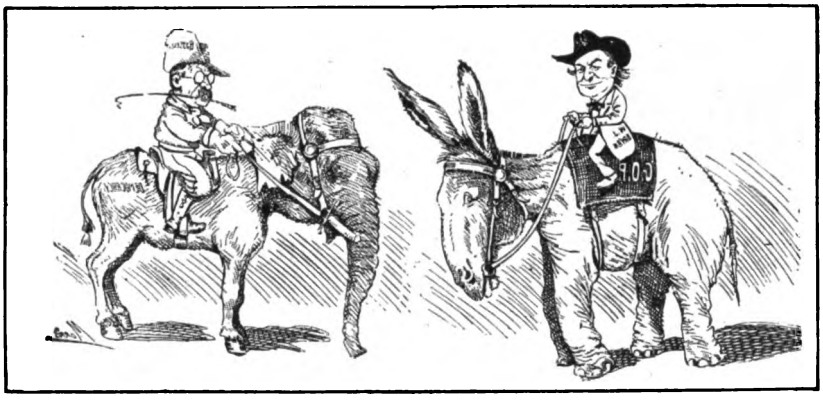
Labor Troubles in France

Amid the various labor difficulties existing at present in France, that of the associated food-supplies trades is the most serious. The bakers struck in April, but only to a limited extent. A week later the restaurant waiters and cooks followed suit, so that in many cases those establishments were obliged to close. On May 1 there was a huge demonstration by the labor unions, some three thousand men marching toward the Madeleine. Conflict ensued between them and the troops which were massed at important points. Some one thousand arrests were made. Premier Clemenceau has been endeavoring to prevent government employees from affiliating with the labor unions, but has not been entirely successful. He holds that the civil servant is a privileged person, receiving a fixed salary, gratuitous college education for his children, special railroad rates and a pension from the state, and therefore he owes it to the community not to abandon work in concert with others.

The Nation

The President and the Land Thieves

Three convictions for conspiracy to defraud the government of some half million acres of public lands in Nebraska on April 19 call renewed attention to the persistent war being waged by the government against the land thieves. Since the latter part of 1903 President Roosevelt has been trying to arouse a nation of usually alert people to a realization of the gravity and of the danger of the public land situation. At the same time he has been endeavoring with rather indifferent success to inspire Congress with his own belief that better land laws and better administration of land laws are imperative if the people desire to save from ruthless spoliation that which remains of the public inheritance of landed wealth. Following the report of the public land commission made in March, 1904, the President has addressed two special messages to Congress dealing with the land laws and making drastic recommendations, has referred in one annual message to frauds committed under existing laws, has withdrawn, temporarily, all remaining coal lands from entry, has begun a complete reorganization of the general land office and has stricken with terror the powerful and perfectly organized gang of land thieves at the head of which are some of the most influential politicians and office-holders from the territory west of the Missouri River. In a special message of December 17, 1906, the President said: "The developments of the past year emphasize with increasing force the need of vigorous and immediate action to recast



NOT IN A THOUSAND YEARS

President Roosevelt has been asked to name William J. Bryan as Republican candidate for the presidency in 1908, and Mr. Bryan has been asked to present President Roosevelt's name to the Democratic national convention as candidate for the presidency in 1908

Morris, in the Spokane *Spokesman-Review*

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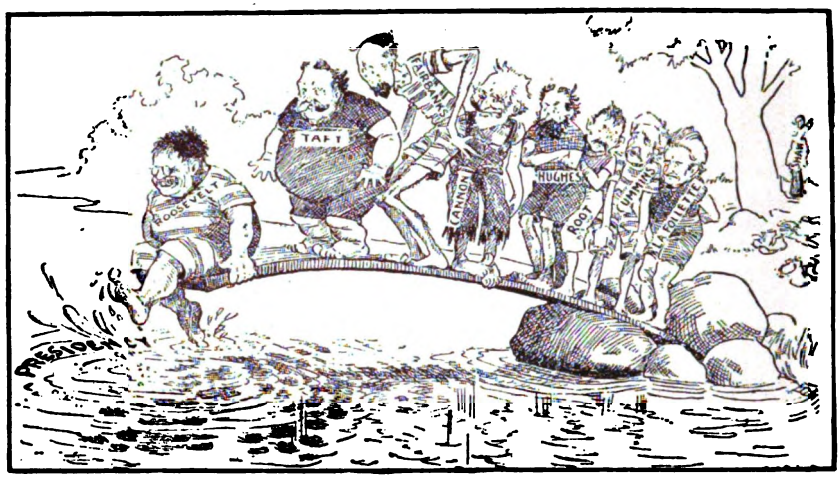

GRACIOUS SAKES, THEODORE! IF YOU AIN'T GOIN' IN, PLEASE GET OFF THE SPRING-BOARD
From the Des Moines *Register and Leader*

the public land laws and adapt them to the actual situation. I am gravely concerned at the extremely unsatisfactory condition of these laws and at the prevalence of fraud under their present provisions. For much of this fraud the present laws are chiefly responsible." In a second special message of February 13, 1907, he said: "I wish to express my utter and complete dissent from the statements that have been made as to there being but a minimum of fraud in the actual working of our present land laws." Despite these emphatic statements there is still upon the statute books vicious land legislation and there are still objectional features, such as the commuting clause of the Homestead Act, in otherwise beneficial laws. The truth of the President's contention will be evident to readers of the article on page 590.

THE MAN WHO KNOWS
William J. Bryan tells us how the administration should put the railroads on the proper running basis
Bartholomew, in the Minneapolis *Journal*

The Moyer-Haywood Case

Union labor does not show to advantage in its attack upon the President relative to the Moyer-Haywood affair. The President's reference to the two imprisoned labor leaders as undesirable citizens was certainly superfluous; but his subsequent letters, one of them to one Honoré Jaxon, a free-lance agitator of Chicago, made it plain that as far as he has power he will see that the two men are given a fair trial. His characterization, however, was a godsend for the men who were trying to turn union labor into socialistic channels. Eugene V. Debbs and other Socialists, as well as a few of the leaders of unionized labor, have assailed him bitterly, and have given expression to sentiments which ought to make dilettante reformers see the difference between their own attitude and that of downright revolutionists. Enormous demonstrations in favor of the two prisoners have been made in New York and other cities, and their trial is being treated not only as persecution but as martyrdom.

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The Situation in Idaho

The situation is indeed serious, but it is the legitimate outcome of the anarchy which has been endemic in Colorado and Idaho for the past ten years. Union labor as represented by the Western Federation of Miners is avowedly socialistic. It has won the fanatical support of large sections of the more radical element of the American Federation of Labor. The case now on trial at Boise is the culmination of a series of acts which are discreditable alike to union labor and to officials of the local government. Both Moyer and Haywood were arrested under conditions which give color if not justification to the claim that they were kidnaped. The ground for their arrest was the confession of one Harry Orchard, which implicated the officers of the Western Federation of Miners — of which Moyer was president, and Haywood secretary and treasurer — in the assassination of former Governor Steunenberg of Idaho, December 30, 1905. There is every evidence that the trial will be protracted because it will be difficult to obtain a jury in Idaho, where the case has been the subject of discussion for months and where the feeling over labor troubles has been intense ever since the Cœur d'Alène strike. No unprejudiced person will attempt to form an opinion as to the outcome of the trial until the evidence on both sides has been read. As far as we have been able to discover there is plenty of circumstantial evidence in favor of maintaining that Moyer and Haywood are the victims of a plot and quite as much circumstantial evidence to argue that they are guilty. What the country wants is facts for itself and a fair trial for them.

CHARLES H. MOYER
President of the Western Federation of Miners

WILLIAM D. HAYWOOD
Secretary of the Western Federation of Miners. Now on trial on the charge of complicity in the murder of ex-Governor Steunenberg, of Idaho

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The Jamestown Exposition

The Jamestown Tercentennial Exposition was opened on April 26. The exposition was not in complete order; in fact, there is still much to do before the buildings are complete or the exhibits installed; but no exposition has probably been opened with as much ceremony. The historic waters on which the exposition faces were crowded with war-ships of Great Britain, Germany, Austria, Italy, Japan, Brazil and America. When President Roosevelt, who came to open the exposition, arrived on the Mayflower,

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all these war-ships, together with Fortress Monroe, saluted him with twenty-one guns. President Roosevelt delivered an address in which he said a number of admirable things, chief among which was his statement that the greatest problem before America "is how to exercise such control over the business uses of vast wealth — individual, but especially corporate — as will insure its not being used against the interests of the public, while yet permitting such ample legitimate profits as will encourage individual initiative."

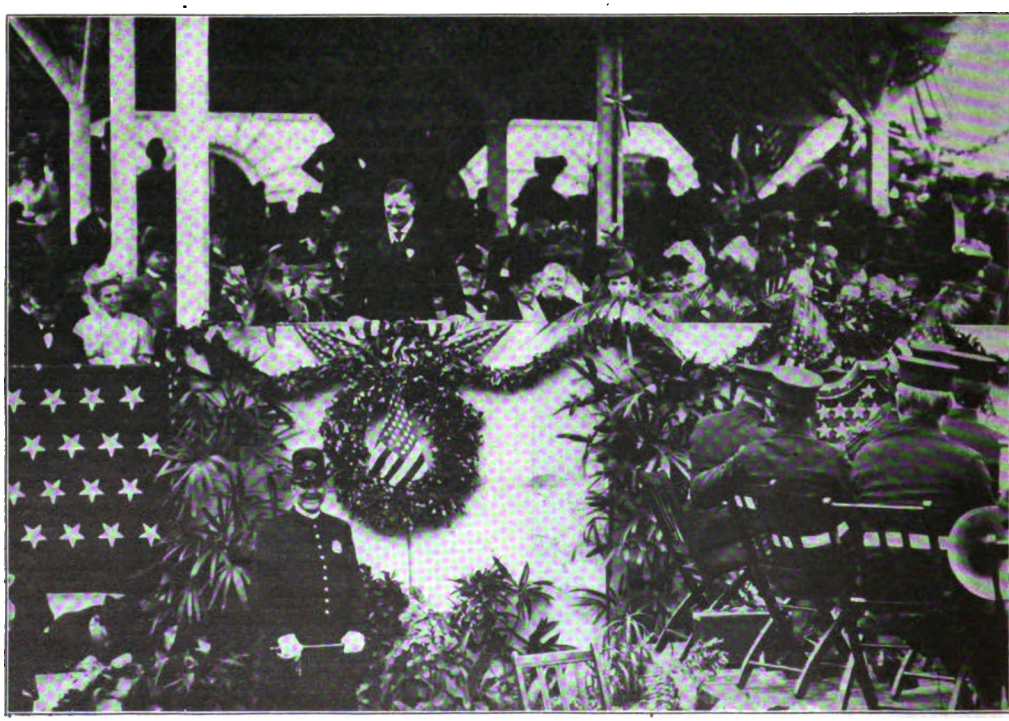
Strikes

May Day saw the industrial world in comparative peace, but since then there have developed rather serious labor troubles in New York and San Francisco. In New York the strike is among the longshoremen; in San Francisco it is on the part of the employees of the United Street Railroads. In San Francisco affairs are complicated by the political power of organized labor, doubtless to some extent by reason of the investigations of Mayor Schmitz's administration. Blood has been shed and anarchy has crouched at the unfortunate city's doors. But none the less rebuilding has gone on and new San Francisco is every day a bigger reality.

Squelching Reformers

Governor Folk of Missouri has sometimes seen his best intentions thwarted by his opponents, but to any one who does not know his reasons, one recent action of his seems to be the height of inconsistency. The Missouri Legislature with his consent has just enacted a law against reforming political organizations, which is calculated to do great injury to municipal reform. The first section of this law reads as follows:

> Leagues, committees, associations or societies, incorporated or unincorporated, formed for the purpose of investigating the character, fitness, or qualifications of candidates or nominees for public office, and making reports on the same, shall in each and every printed or published report or recommendation as to candidates or nominees, state in full on what facts they base their report or recommendation, giving the name and address in full of all persons furnishing the information of and concerning such candidate or nominee, and state in full the



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S CONTAGIOUS LAUGHTER
At the unveiling of the McClellan statue

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THE McCLELLAN STATUE
Unveiled May 2, 1907, in Washington, D. C.

information furnished by such party. Any report or recommendation printed or published by such league, association, or society which does not contain all of the above information shall be unlawful, and any person printing, publishing, or causing to be printed, published or circulated any such report or recommendation without such information, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be fined in a sum not less than $100 nor more than $500, or shall be punished by imprisonment in the county jail for not less than one month nor more than one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

A careful reading of this law will show that it is calculated to put an end to the usefulness of such organizations as the Kansas Civic League and the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago. True, if the reports of these organizations were printed in a newspaper they might possibly escape the penalty. But even with this interpretation the law is vicious. The fear of a libel suit would protect any honest man from spurious investigators. The real purport of the law is to make reform inefficient. It is to be hoped that the Kansas City Civic League will test it in the courts.

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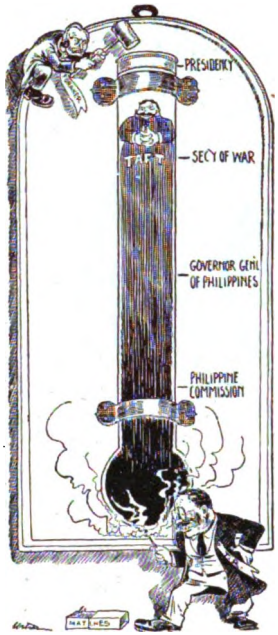


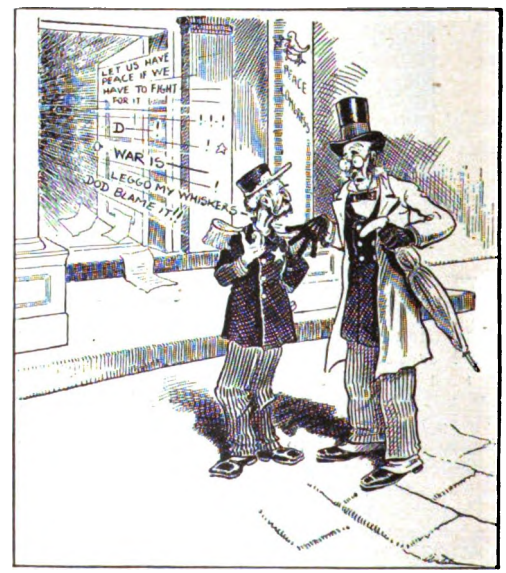
THE OHIO THERMOMETER
Will it bust or be busted?
Webster, in the Chicago *Inter Ocean*

Chicago's New Charter

On May 12 at 3:30 in the morning, the final vote was taken in the Illinois Legislature giving a new charter to Chicago. For the first time in its history that city, with its two million inhabitants, is in a position to assume metropolitan privileges. Its rapid growth has been due in large measure to the addition of originally independent towns and the creation of various independent boards. Each of these various stages involved the city in a more complicated government, or rather sets of governments. During the past few years matters have been simplified as far as a totally inadequate charter permitted. The various town boards have been abolished and a system of "trial justice shops" has been replaced by a Municipal Court. Under the new charter this process of unification has been carried further. Even the park boards are now to be united in one board appointed by the mayor. The city is under special obligation to members of the charter convention which shaped up the charter in the essential form in which it was passed, and particularly to Alderman M. J. Foreman, and Professors C. E. Merriam and Ernest Freund of the University of Chicago.

The Chief Provisions of the Charter

The chief provisions of the charter show that it is a remarkable combination of practical and theoretical efficiency, well illustrating that municipal advance which has characterized Chicago of late. Under it Chicago is given a freer "home rule" than is enjoyed by any large city in America. The mayor is to have a four-years' term with a seat, but not a vote, in the city council, over which he is no longer to preside. He may remove any officer whom he has appointed, but must report reasons for so doing to the city council, which may, by a two-thirds vote, restore the removed officer. In the city government will be consolidated the powers of the present city, the board of education, and township and park administrations. The park board will be composed of nine members and will be appointed by the mayor with the consent of two-thirds of the city council. The city is to have the right to perform municipal services and to construct municipal works of various sorts. The board of education is to consist of fifteen members, appointed by the mayor, with the approval of the city council. This board will appoint a superintendent of education and business manager, neither



Stranger in New York—My goodness, my good man, can you tell me what all this racket is about?
Guide—Oh, that's the Peace conference in session, with Mr. Stead talking
Webster, in the Chicago *Inter Ocean*

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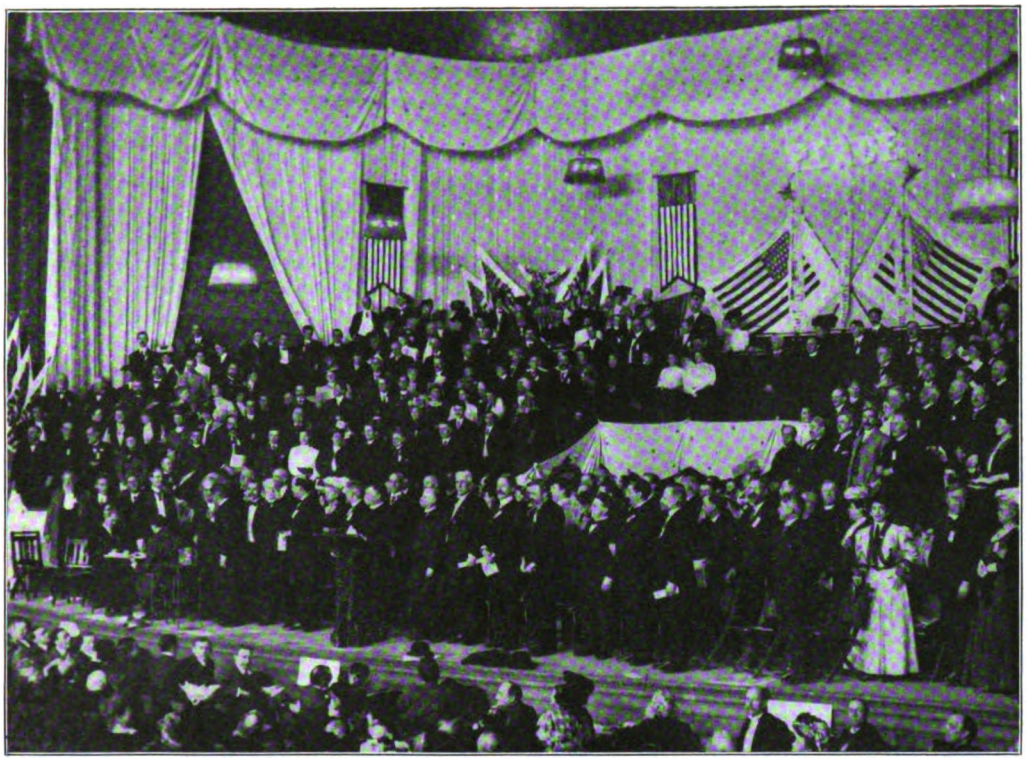

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THE LAST MEETING OF THE PEACE CONGRESS

Among the speakers standing from left to right is Captain Hobson; Edward Everett Hale, talking with Baron d' Estournelles de Constant; Senor Mendoza; Hon. J. W. Foster; Hon. W. J. Bryan; Hon. Richard Bartholdt; Hon. Seth Low; John Barrett; Ambassador Creel, of Mexico; Judge Morrow; "Maarten Maartens"; Dr. Richard; Samuel Gompers; Marcus W. Marks; Dr. S. T. Dutton and George Foster Peabody

of which is to be subject to the civil service law. They are to be removed by a majority of the board after a hearing.

Chicago's Metropolitan Future

For practical purposes as important power as anything conferred by the new charter is permission given the city to raise its debt limit for bonding purposes from five per cent of the assessed value of all property to five per cent of the actual value of such property, although the city's share of the county and sanitary district bonded indebtedness is to be included in the city's total bond issue. This provision, it is estimated, will put the city in a position to raise several million dollars toward improvements, among which will undoubtedly be a noble system of boulevards along the entire lake front, and to develop its police force. The charter will also put the city in a position to develop the water-power from the drainage canal for the purpose of electric lighting. This charter must be accepted by the people at the election to be held September 17, 1907. The fact that it contains no provision for evading the application of the Sunday-closing law of the state, suggests that it will be opposed by certain elements of the city. It is not to be expected, however, that such opposition can result in its defeat.

Local Option for Illinois

By the final action of the state legislature on the Berry bill on May 8, Illinois secures a larger measure of local option on the liquor question than even the State of Ohio possesses. It has been a hard-fought contest for six years, but even its opponents realized at last that the people in large majority were back of the measure and that it must go through. The bill which goes into effect July 1 is

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really a compromise, and will receive mention in our next issue.

Kansas Ousts the Brewers

Kansas, after spending a quarter of a century in more or less unsuccessful casting about for a way to enforce the prohibitory law and a man to do the work, has now apparently found both the man and the method. Attorney-General Fred S. Jackson has paralyzed the illegal liquor business in the state by crushing the outside brewing companies that have been the backbone of the whole system. Three months after he was sworn in as attorney-general last winter, Mr. Jackson filed ouster suits in the Supreme Court against the brewing companies doing business in Kansas. In his petitions the attorney-general asked the court to enjoin the companies from doing business in Kansas and also to declare all their property, real and personal, forfeited to the state. The court granted a temporary injunction and appointed three receivers to take charge of the property of the defendants. On May 8 the receivers, in a partial report to the court, showed that they had taken possession of more than fifty buildings owned by brewing companies, together with a large amount of liquor and bar fixtures. The brewing companies are apparently glad to give up the fight, and only hope to be allowed to retain their property. The Anheuser-Busch Brewing Company is the only one that has appeared in court to resist the ouster proceedings.

The Drama

The Season as a Whole

The end of the regular season came quietly with none of the feverish activity in farce and vapid musical entertainment which usually characterizes the advent of the silly season. A few conspicuous successes like Moody's "The Great Divide" and Broadhurst's "The Man of the Hour" have been overbalanced by failures so many in number that extreme caution is the watchword of the close of the present theatrical campaign. It is gratifying to record the continued vogue of Madame Alla Nazimova, who has won extraordinary popularity in less than one season's appearance before the American public. Her creation in English of the heroine in Robert Bracco's "Comptesse Coquette" is one of the most engaging exhibitions of finished light comedy on the American stage. The play from the Italian "Infidele" is a comedy of merit, developing many surprises in its fresh treatment of a somewhat conventional plot. It is running favorably against Sardou's comedy masterpiece "Divorcons" in the revival of which Grace George has found a rôle suited to her sprightly light-comedy manner. From the art of Sardou to the dramatic artlessness of Rida Johnson Young is a long leap, but her latest little theatrical effort known as "The Boys of Company B" is a commercial rival to the master comedy not to be lightly considered. It is made up of three parts of youthful nonsense against one part of conventional melodrama. The result is inexplicably named a comedy. It has afforded Arnold Daly a financially successful vehicle, in which the turbulent young star gives a spirited performance of a boyish part wholly suited to his youthful demeanor.

One-Act Plays

The vogue for one-act plays is assuming alarming proportions, inasmuch as the demand far exceeds the supply. Arnold Daly has taken advantage of the momentary fad by giving special matinees of two technically excellent comediettes, called "The Lemonade Boy" and "The Monkey's Paw," and a tragedy in miniature called "The Flag Station." Stars find these miniature plays commercially useful for vaudeville. W. H. Thompson, the foremost character actor on the American stage, is making a brief excursion outside the legitimate in a charming sonnetlike comediette called "For Love's Sweet Sake." The list of little plays now meeting with artistic success is too lengthy to present. But it is a phase of dramatic writing to be viewed with consideration, for their building demands consummate skill, and when histrionically successful each represents the most difficult literary art known to professional writers.

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The Swedish Theater

The enterprise of the Swedish Dramatic Company of Chicago under the direction of Ernest Behmer and Chris Brunnell, in giving performances in the Swedish tongue, of the plays of living Swedish dramatists, has resulted in introducing in America for the first time a rich and interesting dramatic output little known outside the Scandinavian countries. Their energies have now extended to Norwegian drama, and Ibsen's "A Doll House" has been given in Swedish, the leading rôle of which has been interpreted by Ida Ostergren, a clever, versatile and well-schooled comedienne of the Royal Theater of Stockholm. These performances in the original tongue have been of inestimable value not only to an enormous Scandinavian population, but to the numerous enthusiastic students of the tongues and literature of these countries, whose dramatists are supplying the continental theaters with serious and deep studies in realism.

Melodrama

In the field of blandly noisy melodrama, filled with wholesome sentiment, exaggerated heroics and a scenic sensation, "The Round-Up" by Edmund Day stands alone during the past month as a conspicuous "road" success. For its kind, it is an excellent play. It reveals a faithful picture of supposedly uncouth Arizona life, where even Nature herself paints her scenes with glaring colors, roughly on a boundless canvas. It is built on big lines, showing clear and distinct characterization, effective if overdone climaxes, and well-devised situations though somewhat reminiscent of several other frontier plays.

FLORENCE ROCKWELL
The leading woman in "The Round-Up," by Edmund Day

The Religious World

For Baptist Unity

A movement of no small significance is at present under way among northern Baptists looking toward the establishment of a permanent denominational body. Hitherto the general missionary and publication work of the denomination has been carried on by societies which, in the very nature of the case, have become perpetuating bodies. The Baptist Association of Chicago — Mr. J. S. Dickerson, editor of the *Standard,* in particular — have been prominent in agitating the movement, and as a result of the widespread interest in the matter there is being held a general meeting on the national anniversary in Washington, May 15-23, in which the question of arranging a national body is being thoroughly discussed. In this meeting there developed considerable difference of opinion. On the one side were those who favored an organization that should be gained by holding a general meeting of the societies. On the other extreme were those who favored a convention, of which the various societies should become boards something as in the Baptist convention in the South and in Canada. Between the two were those who favored the general lines of constitution providing for an annual convention of the de-

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nomination, at which matters of general denominational interest should be discussed. The outcome of the movement can not be forecast at the time of writing.

Theological Summer Schools

Progress is being made in shaping theological schools to the actual needs of the time. Yale is remodeling its divinity course so that now a student may take one of three general groups of studies for graduation. Only one of these groups includes Hebrew. The Divinity School of the University of Chicago, while offering large opportunities for study of Semitic languages, permits substitution of general courses in the history and literature of the Bible for Hebrew. Interest in the summer schools is also shown by the divinity schools, the University of Chicago maintaining full forces of instruction of the same grade as that given throughout the year. Harvard Divinity School maintains this year its ninth Summer School of Theology which, like that of Chicago, becomes inter-seminary because of the representation of other faculties. The general topic at Harvard will be "The Relation of the Ministry to Social Ethics." The school is open to men and women alike.

REV. REGINALD J. CAMPBELL
Minister of the City Temple, London, whose book "The New Theology" is causing much discussion

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The New Theology

Interest in theology is just now replacing that interest in biblical study which has marked the religious thought of the past generation. Such a change was inevitable as the results of scientific biblical study were felt in the region of doctrine. How widespread is this theological interest can be inferred from the fact that "The New Theology," the recent volume by R. J. Campbell of London has sold by the tens of thousands in Great Britain. Mr. Campbell's position is radical, and yet he claims to be essentially evangelical. It involves a complete rewriting of doctrine from the point of view of the neo-Hegelian philosophy and theological presupposition of the immanence of God. While his volume, "The New Theology," is of itself of little technical value, it is so written as to appeal to the average reader, and particularly to those persons who, because of modern education, no longer find it possible to agree with the formulation given religious experience by traditional orthodoxy.

Theological Schools in Japan

A most interesting pamphlet is that embodying the address of Rev. J. L. Dearing, president of the Yokohama Theological Seminary, on theological education in Japan. It is particularly interesting to see that the problems of theology in Japan are rapidly getting to be those of such education in America. Professor Dearing does not believe that there is a demand for separate seminaries in Japan merely to preserve denominational differences, and does believe that the general type of theological education should be improved. The rapid educational development of Japan makes it imperative that the Japanese clergy shall be thoroughly educated. In our opinion it is also necessary that this clergy should be trained in a thoroughgoing, scientific fashion. It is a serious responsibility some of our missionary boards are taking upon themselves in insisting that only men of conservative type shall be sent out as missionaries.

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Crossing a Creek on the Trail

THE NORTHWEST TRAILS

BY

HERBERT VANDERHOOF

THE Trail! What magic lies in the word, especially in the spring, time of vagabonds and journeyers!

The Santa Fe Trail, worn by the feet of the forty-niners over the Kansas prairies; the Allegheny Trail, reminiscent of colonial days; even the old stage roads of New England, to one who knows them, with their dismantled road-houses where the bluebirds build undisturbed above the eaves; the Roman roads of England — all these and every other way the feet of men have trod, spell Romance.

The Trail! The very grass along the forgotten highways whispers in the wind; ghosts haunt it; legends surround it; it is a symbol of the Old Days.

And where may one find more romance than in the trails of the old Northwest? Here red-sashed voyageur and grim Scotch factor paddled or portaged side by side with Indian packer and sun-browned explorer for thousands of miles in the interests of the Hudson's Bay Company. The twentieth century, however, is the century of steel. The Canadian Northern has run its metals over the ancient highways. A blue-shirted freight handler slams the settler's worn trunk into the baggage-car, and the settler himself climbs aboard the colonist train, to be dumped out at his journey's end on a bare platform stranded in a limitless sea of prairie, while the train that brought him crawls silently into the golden distance, westward toward the sea.

Step by step the East has advanced upon the West. The New World called adventurers from France, from England; the great Hudson's Bay Company planted its outposts farther and farther toward the Pacific; dreamers who

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"yearned beyond the sky-line" took canoe and threaded the rivers westward; La Verandrye and Mackenzie sought the wonderful western sea from sunset to fading sunset; and now where their birch-bark canoes pushed through the

THE INTERIOR OF A TRADING POST
Where the fur traders bring their spoils

reeds the Limited thunders by; where the loon laughed and the wild duck rose quacking in the solitude cities have sprung up as in an eastern tale, and Canada is tamed.

The Dawson Road followed the old Northwest Trails, the trails of the explorer and the voyageur. It was as unlike a conventional "road" as one could imagine. Through the course of its five hundred miles between Thunder Bay on Lake Superior to Winnipeg city it bent and twisted, sometimes a rough track over the pine and birch forest country, sometimes merely a portage between waterways, sometimes represented by a tubby little steamer puffing on one of the myriad lakes that jewel the provinces, but in any case it was "The Trail," traversed by a voyageur, trapper, emigrant, or soldier of the Queen. La Verandrye followed practically this same route in 1731, choosing it as the line of least resistance through the central provinces of Canada, and for the same reason the Canadian Northern, some one hundred and seventy years later, surveyed its right-of-way over the same road.

Comparatively speaking, the Dawson Trail is new, only fifty years having passed since S. J. Dawson, a government surveyor, was sent to look over the district and lay out a road in the wilderness of untraversed lakes and rivers. The stretch of country which is now crossed in seventeen hours by the railway was then a difficult trip of three months. Dawson finally, after much delay, was able to bring the road to completion, organizing a special boat transport service and selecting trained boatmen to the number of four hundred.

The importance of the Dawson Road became very apparent at the time of the Northwest Rebellion. No troops were in the West, and it would be impossible to send them from eastern Canada through United States territory. Wolseley's force of twelve hundred men assembled at Toronto, proceeded across Lakes Huron and Superior to Thunder Bay, and established the present terminus of the Canadian Northern Railway, Port Arthur, then called "Prince Arthur's Landing" in honor of His Royal Highness, Prince Arthur, who was visiting Canada. Fort William was then an old fort consisting of several blockhouses palisaded in a fourteen-acre space once belonging to the Northwest Company, turned over to the Hudson's Bay Company in 1822, and at certain seasons of the year crowded with perhaps three thousand people with rich loads of fur from the interior. Port Arthur now contains over ten thousand people and has huge sawmills and iron works, magnificent coal and ore docks, and the largest grain elevator in the world. Fort William plays St. Paul to Port Arthur's Minneapolis, and Wolseley to-day would feel no little surprise at the aspect of his woodland camp of 1870.

Wolseley found it impracticable to attempt to follow the partially completed Dawson Road to Lake Shebandowan, and therefore made the toilsome journey up the rapidly flowing Kaministiquia, only

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An Indian camp

An old trading post

Neepawa, a modern town

STEPS IN CIVILIZATION

to find when he arrived at Winnipeg that the rebellion which he had started to subdue was already a matter of history.

There was pressing need for a real means of transportation practicable for large bodies of men, but nothing really useful to the country at large was completed until the Canadian Northern surveyors tramped over the Dawson Road with their levels and laid out the railroad.

The Canadian Northern has arisen as if built by a genie. Twelve months have elapsed since its completion to Edmonton, and already it is handling an amount of

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traffic that competes with the largest lines on the continent. It has grown from next to nothing in 1900 to over one thousand eight hundred miles in 1904, and

WILLIAM MACKENZIE
The President of the Canadian Northern Railway

three thousand seven hundred in 1907. It is the first important system that is purely Canadian. The Canadian Pacific was built and is managed by Yankee brains. The Grand Trunk Pacific was conceived by an American, and under his guidance is bridging the continent. But the story of the Canadian Northern is the story of Mackenzie and Mann, contractors.

The men who know them best say that Mackenzie and Mann are a happy combination. The former is a cultured, affable, gracious and yet forceful man who moves about with the least possible noise. Despite the vast amount of his work already done, he is still a young man — an unusually happy man who has not forgotten how to laugh. The best thing about him is that he has not only the loyalty but the love of almost every man who knows him and works with him. Dan Mann is of a different fiber, as strong and useful in his way, but a sharp contrast to his partner. If Mackenzie can measure to a cent to-morrow's market value of a piece of property, Mann can tell you exactly what it will cost to pull down a hill and fill a hollow. Each is essential to the other's success.

They followed the Northwest trails, surveying over the Dawson route to Winnipeg, through the most beautiful district of Canada, past silver rivers and leaping falls, through dim stretches of pine forest and ghostly white birch, among jeweled lakes and deep-grassed meadows, to the West and the prairies.

The prairie was the country for the settler, and this fact was recognized by the Dominion of Canada. The government assisted the company from the outset, and for certain lines a large land grant was set aside. On account of the large westward immigration movement,

D. D. MANN
The partner of William Mackenzie in building the Canadian Northern

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A SUNSET OVER THE VIRGIN PRAIRIE
Breaking the sod in the rich Saskatchewan Valley

and because of the class of settlers who have been attracted from south of the boundary line, these lands have proved of great value, and as years go on and the development increases, the value of the grant will develop naturally.

With this governmental assistance Mackenzie and Mann have built the Canadian Northern, mile by mile, from forest to prairie, and prairie to foothills, and always in its wake elevators, mills, and towns have sprung up, so that each mile of track as it was turned over to the operating department has been able to earn something above operating expenses, even while it helped to people the prairie lands where, until now, there had been only silence and the sighing of winds in the wild grasses. Verily, these be Empire Builders, these men of the railway.

In the early years of the nineteenth century Simon Fraser started westward, racing Lewis and Clark to the Pacific Coast. Up from Winnipeg, then Fort Garry, across the great Lake Winnipeg, through the myriad water-ways to the Saskatchewan, the Missouri of the North, he went, pushing slowly westward, winterbound among the snows a thousand miles north of Lewis and Clark, near Peace River Pass. In the spring he went across the Canadian Rockies by the Tete Jaune Pass, and there established Fort St. James, Fort Fraser, and Fort George, deliberately establishing his grip upon that country. But it was spring of 1808 when he learned that he had long ago missed his race with the young Virginians, and lost the empire of the Northwest Coast. Lewis and Clark were by that time back home, and America was going wild over her newly discovered empire.

The story of Simon Fraser is but one of the many stories of the Saskatchewan. Through many years it remained mysteriously unknown, highway only of the furs. The Saskatchewan was still unexploited. The nets came up full of fish in all its branches. Its plains were tenanted by the buffalo and wild antelope. The plover circled about the uplands, the

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PEACE RIVER AND ST. JOHN'S FORT
This country is marked on the map only by rivers and peaks and Hudson's Bay posts

painted wild-fowl streamed over its marshes, and the wind blew fresh and clean across the unbroken sod. On the Saskatchewan a man did as he pleased. There were little churches at the mouths of rivers where the great fur brigades came down, where a man might confess and be absolved. So for a hundred years the Saskatchewan lay at our doors, the very sign and symbol of a wilderness.

Past these river-mouths, past the little gray churches, past the vanished trails of the voyageurs, leads the Canadian Northern, out of Winnipeg city, across the Assiniboine, to the great Saskatchewan Valley. Where the wild-fowl and the antelope frolicked, the grade crossing and the right-of-way stand. Where the voyageur and the Indian held their *boissons,* the Mounted Police ride with a watchful eye to keep law and order in the land. Saskatchewan is no longer even

ELBOW BRIDGE OVER ELBOW RIVER IN THE PROVINCE OF ALBERTA
One of the bridges that have supplanted the boat transportation on the old trails

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the frontier, much less the wilderness of not so long ago. The Canadian Northern has followed the Northwest Trails to Edmonton, and Mackenzie and Mann only know how much farther they will go.

For if the dreams of these dreamers come true, they will some day reach the Pacific, somewhere in British Columbia, marking old Simon Fraser's trail with spikes and metals, and whistling for crossings where he heard the cougar cry.

Those who know the builders say they will not rest satisfied until the Canadian Northern becomes a transcontinental system. "William Mackenzie never lets go," is a favorite expression of his friends. The spirit of romance and adventure is not dead. Though the canoe is a thing of by-gone days, the special that moves smoothly over the long metals carries the same courage and daring, the same sweep of vision and breadth of dream. The builders of the railroad work with huge tools, to huge ends, and who shall say that they are not the real pioneers?

The white man has indeed come to the North. In 1906 the old buffalo plains raised one hundred million bushels of wheat, and each year now adds a half million or a whole million to the acres under plow. Soon there will be two hundred million acres of wheat standing in the bull wallows along the Saskatchewan. Soon this Missouri of the North will be sending to Great Britain twenty times as much wheat as to-day. Wheat has come to take the place of fur.

It is a significant fact that the recently located lines of railway in Canada swing to the North on their way to the West. To be sure, this was not without a thorough knowledge of the country. Rosthern, thirty miles north of the Canadian Northern main line, is the largest individual wheat-shipping point in the Canadian West. There is a farm at Carrot River that has been cropped twenty-two years without a single failure. M. H. McLeod, Chief Engineer of the Canadian Northern, has all these things at his fingers' ends, and his layout of the line has added millions to the revenues of the company.

Beyond Edmonton lies the Peace River country, marked on the map with nothing but rivers and peaks and Hudson's Bay Company posts. Beyond that, again, lies the vast expanse of Mackenzie and the Yukon, whose future is yet undreamed. Perhaps the Honorable Hudson's Bay Company knew something of what lay in those unmapped miles, but it said no word. The occasional explorer who has traversed a tiny patch of the country can tell you things to rival the tales of

ONE OF THE WILDERNESS PRODUCTS
A captured bear cub

Scheherazade. But even he has a small idea of its possibilities. It will take twenty-five years, perhaps, to open that country, but some day it will be done — it is being done already, for the outposts of the settler and the railroad daily move a fraction farther. Some day the New York millionaire will own his "cottage" on the Great Slave Lake, and the hoot of the steam launch and the tallyho will surprise the polar bear on the Arctic Circle.

Having regard to the quiet but effective manner in which lines have been acquired and absorbed into what is known as the Canadian Northern, and keeping in view the men behind the enterprise, Dan Mann and William Mack-

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SETTING LIMITS TO THE WILDERNESS
A ranch near Pretoria, Manitoba

enzie, it is easy to imagine in the years to come the vast system that will organize Canada — western Canada, northern Canada — and link it to the East by a million shining metals.

Over these iron trails journeys a company as varied as the forty-niners of California, or the steady-eyed, daring voyageurs of the fur brigades. Here at Winnipeg, gateway to the wheat country, trains full of intelligent, eager, well-educated young fellows, many of them sons of well-to-do eastern farmers, are going to the West to handle big farms of a section or more, carrying with them experience and the means of success, and the enthusiasm and courage of youth. Here, too, may be seen the English contingent, many of them white-faced with life in cities, but with the spirit of ad-

MEAL-TIME WHERE THERE ARE NO HOTELS
The pioneers dine where the wilderness runs riot

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venture still in their hearts, going out to learn how to handle a farm, and doing it with the alarming speed of all western Canada events. It is hard to realize that the country to which they are going is still celebrating one-figure birthdays, or that the great industrial development of the Winnipeg-Port Arthur section is the work of but a few years.

The immigration into western Canada during the present year promises to exceed all calculations. Basing its estimate on the reports of agents and steamship bookings, the department of immigration looks for an influx of three hundred thousand, or fifty per cent more than last year, and equal to the total immigration of the decade from 1881-1891. The newcomers are arriving in large numbers at different Albertan points, and are impressing those who have come in touch with them as being a very superior class of settlers. The government is taking extra precautions to keep out undesirables. The fact that a large proportion are from the British Isles and the United States shows the caliber of the men. Iowa alone lost thirty thousand people in two years, not because Iowa lands were no longer good, but because they were no longer cheap. At least seventy-five thousand will leave the United States during this year, settling up the wonderful wheat lands of the Saskatchewan Valley.

THE OLD TRAIL STILL IN USE
Seekers of fortune to-day travel the same road

Canada will not need to build flats or run suburban trains for some time yet. There is room enough and to spare for many times three hundred thousand people — room for all who will come, and a future that is bounded only by what men dare first to dream and then to compass. It is the country of to-morrow.

The old trails are not forgotten, though the grass has grown again in the track of the voyageur's feet. As long as the Red Gods make their medicine in spring the young men will turn to the West and go a-journeying, and the old men will remember their youth and take to the road once more. The eternal type repeats itself — LaVerandrye standing in the bow of his canoe; the eager-eyed New England lad, setting out to seek his fortune; and William Mackenzie in his special car.

The Northwest Trails are still there, though they are spiked down over whitewood ties instead of being scarred with Indian blazings. Though men work with railways and elevators and townships instead of canoe-brigades and dog-trains and wilderness cabins, Romance is never dead. The Empire Builders of to-day are as the Empire Builders of yesterday, and Mackenzie and Mann are the new Lords of the North, both dreamers and accomplishers of dreams.

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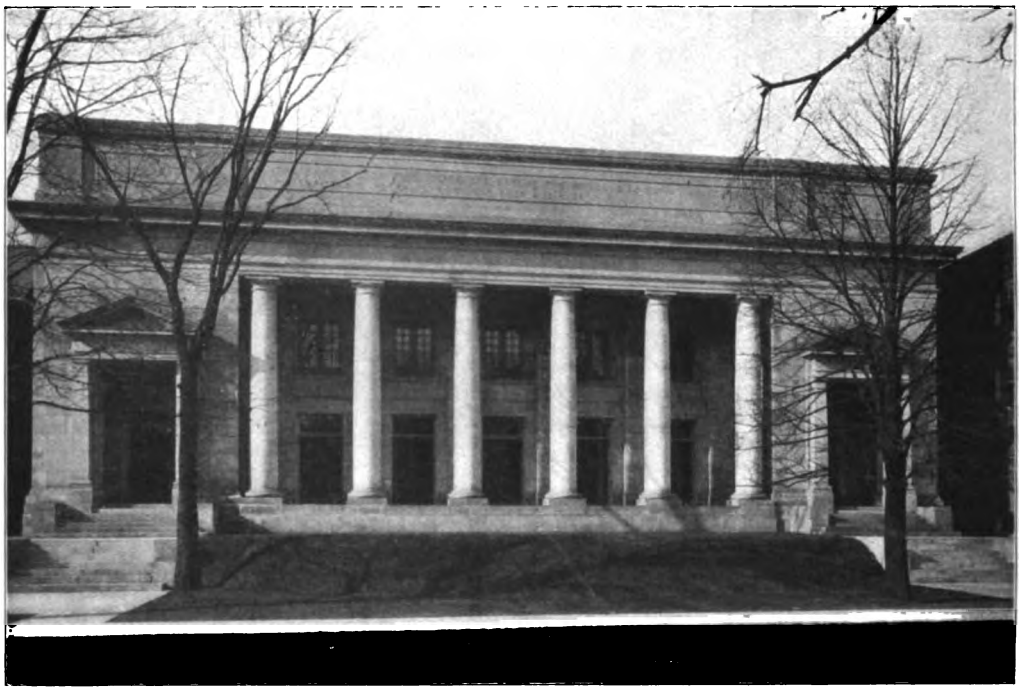

Fifth Church of Christ, Scientist, Chicago

THE ARCHITECTURE OF THE CHRISTIAN SCIENCE CHURCH

BY

S. S. BEMAN

No modern architectural development, not even that of the great office building, is more striking than that seen in the churches of the Church of Christ, Scientist. It is something more than a matter of technic. It is a matter of social psychology. Mr. Beman has been prominently identified both in sympathy and professionally with this architectural movement, and his article has a real importance for all those who, whether or not Christian Scientists, are interested in public buildings.

SOME time since the question was asked: "When Christian Science, whose phenomenal growth and the substantial quality of its followers indicate it to be a vital religious force in the world, commences to erect its own church buildings, what will be its architectural form of expression?" The question is worthy of serious consideration. When one forecasts the future of the expansion of a great religious movement, it is easy to see that the accomplishments of the past argue a great era of Christian Science church building. It is not too much to say that every city, and average village too, will sooner or later have its Christian Science church, and many of the larger cities a liberal number. For instance, Chicago has seven growing

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church organizations, with five large church edifices, and more in contemplation; and the same growth may be seen in New York and other cities. The future gives promise of an interesting development of religious architecture which will influence architectural art generally.

Architecture reveals most perfectly the real meaning and power of every civilization, and its scope and subtlety make it a reliable medium for the visible portrayal of the inner spirit and life of its makers. It is, moreover, because of its public nature, the magnitude and grandeur of its creations, the useful ends which it subserves, and its intimate relation with the larger life of the people, likely to summarize their science, history and religion, as well as their art.

FIRST CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, ST. JOSEPH, MISSOURI

Architecture finds in religion its most powerful incentive. Religion creates a nation's ideals, and in its architecture we must trace their record, for, as it has been aptly said, architecture is the chief conserver of the history of nations.

THE INTERIOR OF FIRST CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, NEW YORK CITY

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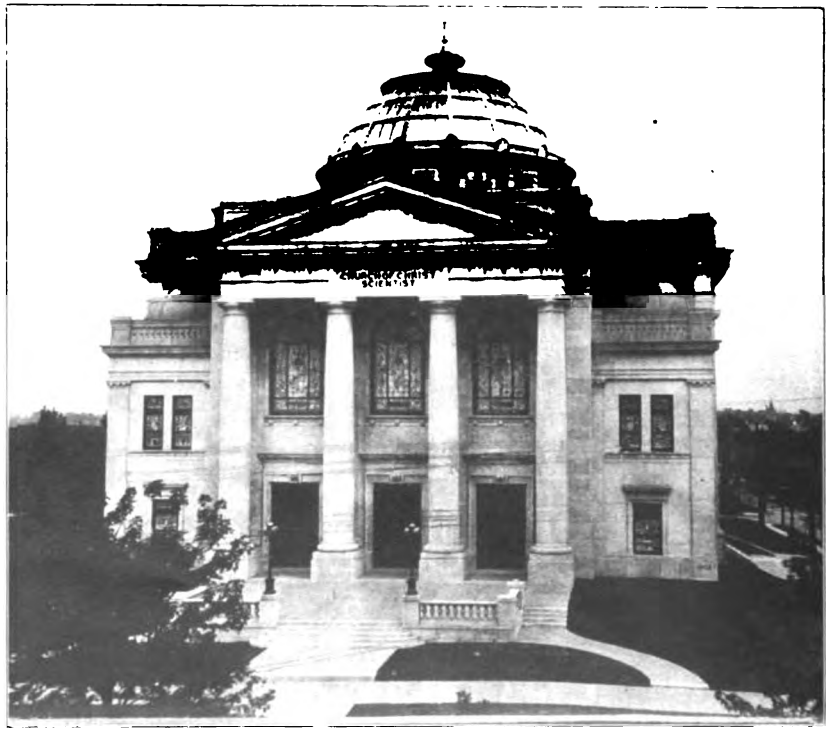
FIRST CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, PITTSBURG



SECOND CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI

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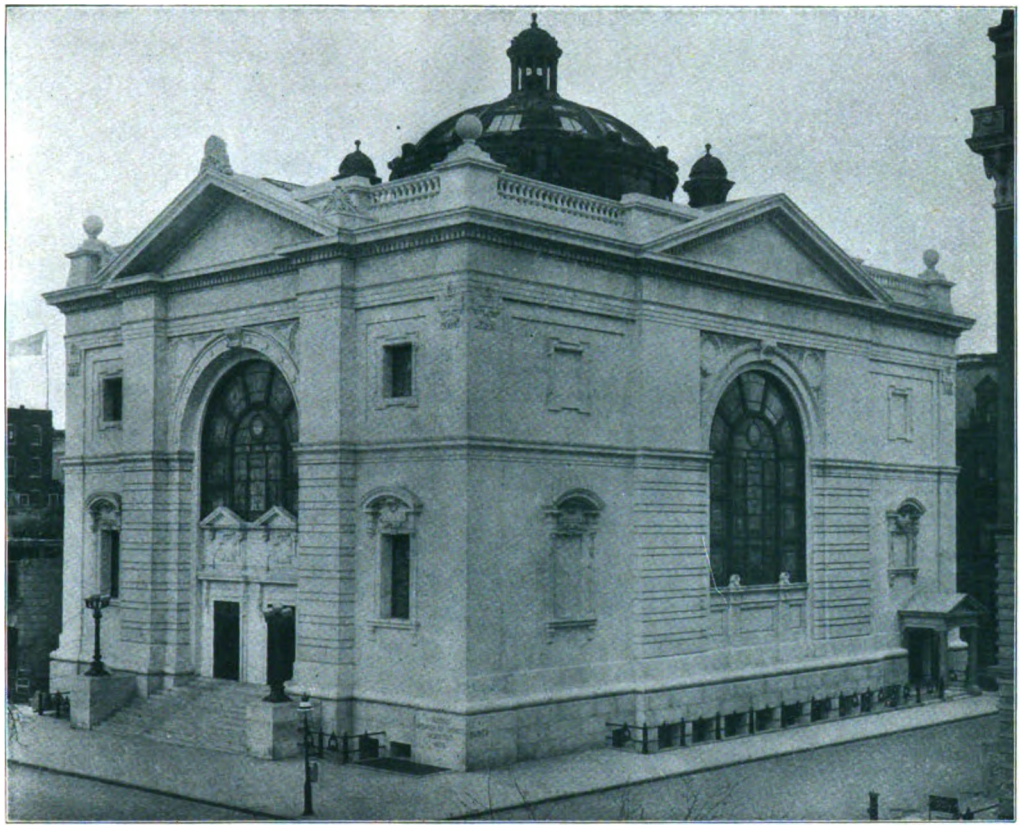

SECOND CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, NEW YORK CITY

It is chiefly from its architecture that we discern in a community its sense of beauty and its general plane of thought. Can it also suggest or express with any degree of directness anything of the faith and spirit of its builders? If so, what architectural form shall be its utterance?

This, in view of the future promise of the spread of the Christian Science thought, is a question of consuming interest to all who have seriously at heart the true interests of art development.

There have been many splendid church buildings erected in the last few years by the Christian Science denomination throughout this country, and a number in Europe. Some of these buildings are unusually large and costly, and as a whole they compare most favorably with the church buildings of other denominations, with respect to architectural and structural quality. It will be seen from the illustrations which accompany this article

FIRST CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, GRAND RAPIDS

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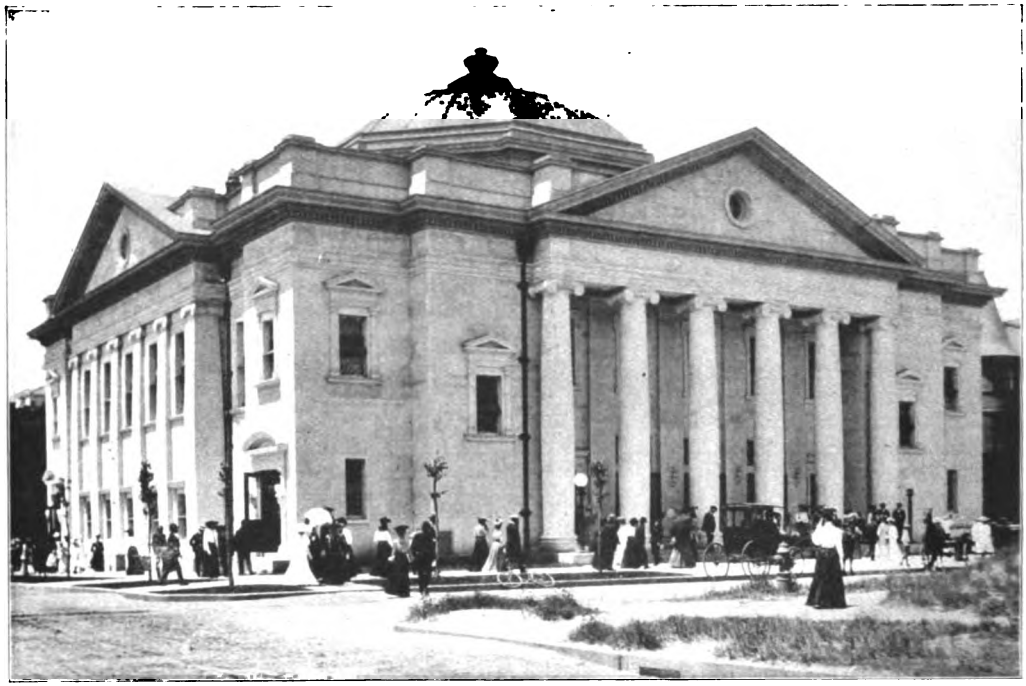

FIRST CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, DENVER

FIRST CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, HIGHLAND PARK, ILLINOIS

INTERIOR OF THE FIRST CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, CHICAGO

that both the classic and Gothic styles have been drawn upon for Christian Science Churches, but that the pronounced leaning is to the classic.

Christian Science is anything but mystical or esoteric, and as understood and followed by its earnest votaries stands to them for all that is scientifically true, rational and natural. From which we must infer that strange forms and symbolisms can never be tolerated in its church building or any other of its visual expressions.

The teachings of this church seem not to be in sympathy with the man-made ecclesiastic creeds, present or traditional, and ritualism, forms and pageantry have little place in its simple and direct service. Yet there

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THE FIRST CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, BOSTON

Dedicated in July, 1906. It was erected at the cost of $2,000,000, and seats 5,000 people. In front of it is the original church, built in 1895

is an instinctive feeling in this church for a certain calm harmony and dignity of architectural environment. And while it is true that this effect is not always realized in their churches, it has invariably been the writer's experience with numerous building committees of this faith, that a sincere and undoubted desire for a consistent and artistic architectural expression has always been present and paramount.

The Gothic style has been interwoven in warp and woof with everything ecclesiastical and the emotional ceremony and forms of what is called the Orthodox Church. In fact, the Gothic style is the very outgrowth and development of such ritualisms, and is quite the essential artistic frame and background of ecclesiastical rites and ceremonies. It is, then, hardly to be expected that Christian Science should find its expression through its churches to any great extent in Gothic architecture. Yet what is more artis-

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FIRST CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, ST. LOUIS

tically inspiring than the lofty grandeur and sublimity of the old Gothic cathedrals?

Yet, as has been said, thus far architecture along classic lines has found most favor with Christian Science church builders. And granted that this faith is founded on the principles already stated, it follows logically that it is likely to favor classic architecture for its churches. This style, with its sense of calm power and dignity, and with its true systems of proportion, its sincerity and refinement, and I may add its rationalism, seems to represent the faith of those who employ it in their houses of worship.

The Grecian architecture of the Athenian Acropolis, embracing as it does three developed types, is conceded by all authorities to have reached the highest architectural perfection. It is grounded on exquisite artistic subtleties of line and mass where, in the truest sense, there is nothing wanting in proportion. All of this is based on a mathematical inerrancy which is most fascinating to analyze. The purest type of the ancient Greek

FIRST CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, SOUTH BEND, INDIANA

SECOND CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST, MINNEAPOLIS

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temples was the outgrowth of a naturalistic and rationalistic religion, and reached its highest culmination of perfected beauty during the age of Pericles when the human intellect blossomed out with an artistic perfection the long ages have never dimmed, but rather have made more appreciable.

The Greek style not only has continued to live and flourish to this day, but from its singular vital force has shown such a power of successive transformation that while it has assumed an almost wholly different form, we can recognize in its last developments the uninterrupted descent from the first principles of truth in which this beautiful architecture is so firmly rooted. It matters not that they be called pagan temples. Their beauty is our inheritance and stands for our guidance and inspiration when we have a truly great thought to express in architectural terms.

Why then should not this straightforward and enduring architecture be the logical outward expression of a teaching which so forcefully concerns itself with the present welfare of man, and a doctrine which in so large a measure addresses itself to the well-being of the individual man here on earth?

The Christian Science Church services are very simple in their character, without ritual, and consist of readings from the Bible and the Christian Science textbook on Sundays and the testimony meetings during the week. The nature of these meetings makes it necessary that the readers should be heard from all parts of the auditorium, and it is also desirable, but not particularly necessary, that a full view of the readers' platform be had from any point. At the testimony meetings during the week many people address the audiences from all parts of the room and being for the most part unaccustomed to public speaking, it is imperative that the acoustic properties of the audience room be as nearly perfect as possible. The room must be planned to meet successfully these essentials. Furthermore, the fact that the entire audience joins in the responsive reading from the Scriptures renders the proper natural lighting of the room by day and the artificial lighting by night very important.

As to the seating, it is aimed to make it as practical and comfortable as possible by banking up the rows of seats away from the readers' platform, which is the focus point of the auditorium. Opera chairs seem to be the most practical and comfortable and, therefore, most in favor.

Special consideration is given the matter of ingress and egress, and invariably broad and numerous stairways are provided to reach and leave the auditorium. These stairways are usually placed at each corner of the building, and a central tunnel stairway introduced as well.

Back of the readers' platform is placed a small room for each reader, a committee room or two, and a room for the soloist, all of which open on a common hall. The organ is generally placed over these rooms. The auditoriums of the larger churches are invariably high and impressive, and often ornamented in the center by a large domed leaded glass ceiling light.

These, in brief, are the general characteristics of the auditorium floor.

There is one feature of the Christian Science churches which distinguishes them from the usual church type, and while not absolutely essential, it is very desirable and embraced in the plan of every church where the conditions of site permit it. This is the large inner vestibule, or what it is the fashion to call the "foyer." This great room is nearly the area of the auditorium which is built above it, and all the stairways lead upward from it. It is generally calculated to contain about seventy per cent of the audience standing. This foyer incidentally fulfills the function of a large meeting place for the people to exchange greetings after the service, and furnishes a place for parents to wait for their children during Sunday-school.

There are almost invariably commodious cloak rooms where hats, coats, etc., may be checked, comfortable and well-lighted toilet rooms, often a public reading room where Christian Science literature may be found, besides the usual directors' room, a small office for the church clerk, and other utilities.

The larger churches generally have commodious, well-lighted Sunday-school rooms, but when space will not permit a separate room, the Sunday-school is held in the main auditorium.

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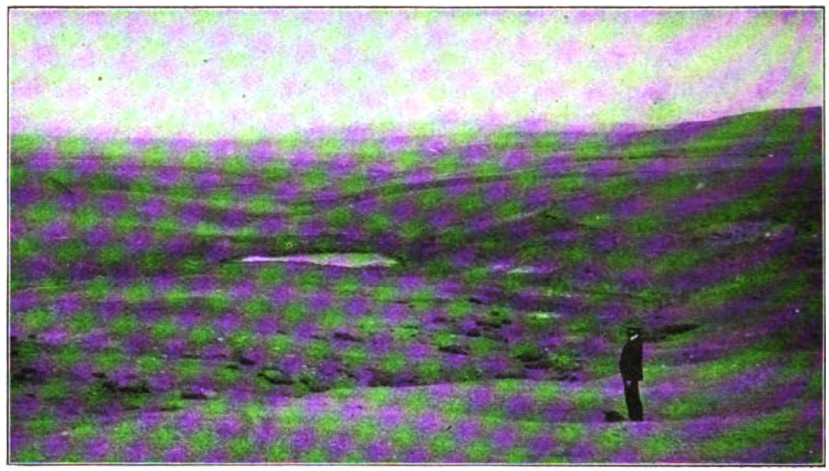
It will thus be seen that the general design and features of the Christian Science house of worship are of a practical, straightforward, utilitarian character, and these basic necessities are clothed in the most artistic and consistent architectural form within the reach of the building committee.



A desert land "reservoir," supposed to irrigate 640 acres!

ROBBING THE NATION OF ITS LANDS

BY

S. GLEN ANDRUS

ALMOST from the time that the Republican party in its incipiency raised the slogan, "Free homes for free men," the public domain has been wantonly plundered and the people have been robbed of their wealth in land, in timber and in minerals in a wholesale fashion seemingly impossible in a civilized country.

Recent disclosures made by the Interstate Commerce Commission under the Tillman-Gillispie resolution of Congress; evidence given by employees of the general land department; facts brought to light by the army of special agents and by attorneys of the department of justice, have disclosed a condition of rottenness with respect to the disposal of public lands which staggers imagination and challenges credulity. The people of the United States have not begun to realize the inestimable loss which has been occasioned, the enormity of the crimes which have been committed and the mass of corruption which has besmirched the high and the low, the individual and the corporation, the private citizen and the public servant, and even permeated and controlled a branch of the government itself, during the successful consummation of land fraud conspiracies which have existed since the early sixties.

Ethan Allen Hitchcock, former Secretary of the Interior, barely scratched the surface in his last annual report, in which he states that during the past year 504 indictments were returned in land fraud cases, eighty-nine convictions were obtained and over five hundred thousand

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acres of the public domain in certain western states were unlawfully appropriated to private or to corporate uses. He did not state what is now well known, that these wholesale robberies have been committed by great and hitherto respected corporations through the medium of organized gangs which were in most cases headed or protected by United States senators, themselves among the most flagrant violators of the land laws. He did not state a fact now known to many, that by an organized system of political corruption and political patronage the land thieves have been able to dictate presidential appointments, keep their agents in control of the general land department of the government, maintain themselves at the head of important committees in both branches of Congress, and finally to enforce government approval of their unlawful acts, an approval behind which the guilty parties now purpose to try to protect themselves against criminal and civil prosecution.

For years, it has been shown, the false entry of public lands by individuals who were "dummies" for the benefit of corporations has been going on with the full knowledge of the general land department and despite the bitter protest of honest special agents. So bold did the land stealings become that the guilty and greedy corporations had their agents in nearly every big city of the middle West and the West securing "dummies" to exercise their "land rights" as American citizens — and in exercising them to commit perjury.

Between 1856 and 1870 the two avenues opened for the disposal of the public lands were the homestead law and the railroad land-grant system. The former was the result of the cry for "free homes for free men," which became a platform principle of the Fremont campaign in 1856, and again of the Lincoln campaign in 1860. The latter came because the great West needed development and development could not come without the railroad. Private capital, unaided, was too timid to push steel rails across a desert chasm more than one thousand miles wide and do it a quarter of a century ahead of progress.

The Homestead Act gives to every citizen above twenty-one years of age the right to take up 160 acres of minimum land at $1.25 an acre or eighty acres of double minimum land at $2.50. Soldiers were allowed 160 acres even of double minimum land. It so happened that oftentimes soldiers could not obtain to their liking all of their allotment, and so they entered, lived upon, and proved up their homesteads on less acreage. Years afterward their influence was so felt in Congress that they secured the passage of an act allowing them, where they had obtained less than 160 acres, the right to go elsewhere and enter at once without any settlement or cultivation or further labor or development, the remainder of the 160 acres to which they were entitled. If they did not do this they could get script or certificates for the land. This script became almost as easy of transfer as negotiable paper, and has been fraudulently used in obtaining mineral lands to which it was not applicable, and despite the fact that the mineral policy of the government has always been strict, well defined and presumably well guarded.

Realizing that it would be a splendid thing if forests could be made to spring up in the vast prairies of the West, Congress conceived and passed the timber culture act. By its provisions any untimbered or prairie land could be obtained by any citizen, to the extent of not more than 160 acres, by planting a certain number of trees upon the tract. Proba-

A HOMESTEAD ENTRY AT BELLE FOURCHE, S. D.
Made in anticipation of government improvement. There was no plowing done or other improvement made by the claimant

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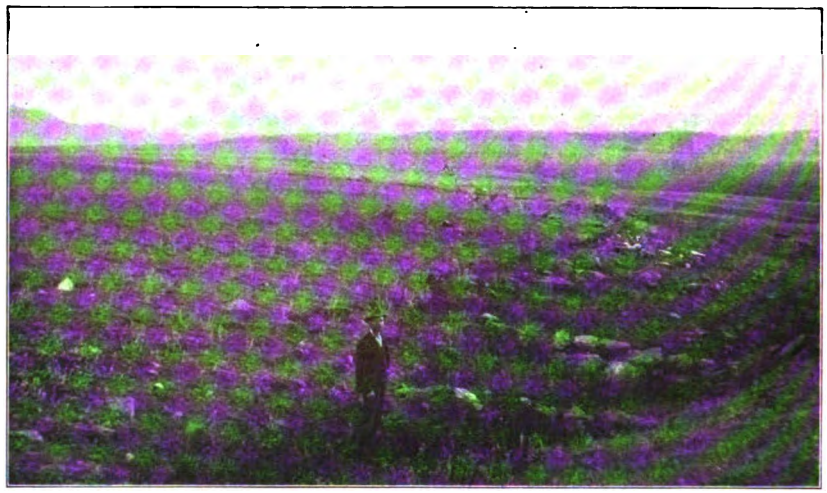

A STONEWORK "RESERVOIR" NORTH OF GREAT FALLS, MONTANA
Supposed to irrigate two desert land claims

bly not more than half a hundred patches of timber of small area were ever actually maintained to a reasonable growth in compliance with this law. Nevertheless probably millions of acres of land were taken up under the convenient provisions of this act and mostly by corporations employing "dummies." Town-site property which afterward became exceedingly valuable, rich agricultural lands, water holes so essential to the maintenance of cattle ranches and all sorts of land were acquired in wholesale lots by monopolistic corporations.

It became the practice in the West, when corporations desired large tracts of land, to procure people to homestead 160 acres and then to take up an adjoining 160 under the timber-culture act. Under the commuting clause of the homestead act, which Secretary Hitchcock so roundly condemns in his report, the "dummy" homesteader could, after six months living on his land and after making slight improvements, "prove up and commute" and secure title to his land by paying $1.25 or $2.50 an acre. The interested corporations furnished the money for commuting and thus obtained their lands quickly.

Next came the desert-land act with its commendable purpose to make the desert bloom where only the cactus, the soap weed, the rattlesnake and the prairie dog flourished. Under its provisions any one could reclaim desert lands by putting water upon a maximum of 320 acres and by paying a small sum per acre. Land companies and sordid corporations were quick to see the opening, and by wholesale use of perjury and by false representations, they succeeded in securing vast acreage of valuable desert lands, much of which was underlaid with coal and other minerals. In the Southwest, and especially in the famed Pecos Valley of New Mexico, these frauds reached their climax and finally resulted in numerous indictments.

Perhaps the worst depredations upon the public lands have been committed under the stone and timber act. Such a grip have interested parties upon the avenues of legislation that practically no attention was paid to the appeals of former Secretary Hitchcock, and this dangerous bit of legislation still mars the statute books. Under the provisions of this law any citizen of age can go anywhere where land is not valuable for either agricultural or mineral purposes, and enter 160 acres of stone or timber land. After sixty days' notice he can appear at the land office, pay $2.50 per acre and a small office fee and secure his land. Under the stone and timber act the government has lost to the corporations by the "dummy" system the entire and enormously valuable timber of the Pacific Northwest, the most valuable timber section in the world.

Men who live in the Northwest know,

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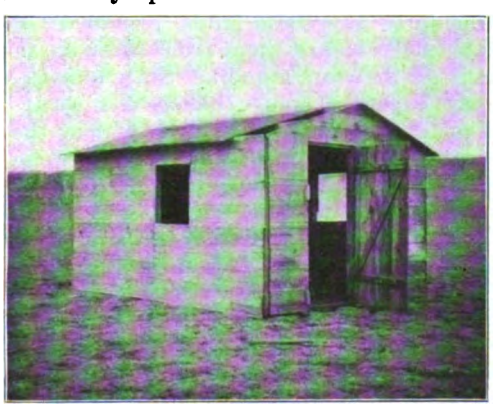
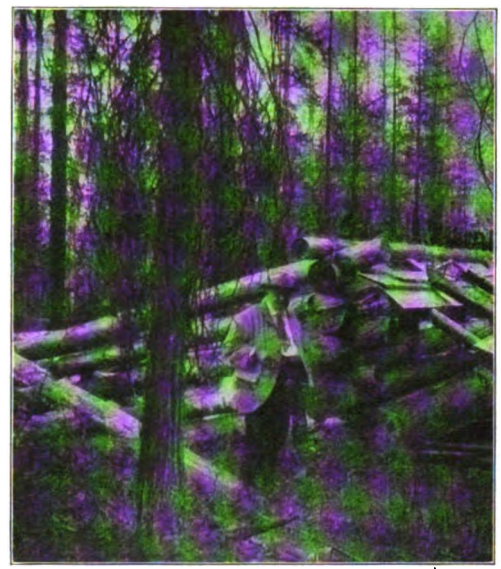
since the conviction of the late Senator Mitchell, what it means when it is said that a man or a corporation made his or its money in timber. Countless greedy corporations have illegally swept from the possession of the government the entire timber lands of the states of Washington, Oregon, California, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico, and large tracts in the more sparsely settled states of Utah and Nevada. Great lumber companies were organized with the express view of committing wholesale robbery upon the public domain under this act. So flagrant and bold became the stealings that in many instances, in the Northwest, agents were stationed upon prominent lines of railroad traversing those sections to secure tramps, furnish them with store clothes, shave them, maintain them for the necessary sixty days in idleness, pay all the expenses, pay for the land, and give them anywhere from $10 to $100 each, in order that they might exercise their "land rights." Deeds were taken from them as soon as they received the final land-office receipt for the payment of the money, and often the deeds were taken in advance of final receipt. The billions of timber in quantity and the untold millions in value that have been thus stolen under this stone and timber act and are still being stolen wherever there is timber not carried into the forest reserves, can hardly be estimated.

The forest-reserve act, passed to stop timber stealing and to preserve some of the beauty spots of the West as national parks, provided that any person who already owned land within the limits of territory set apart as a forest reserve could surrender that land to the government and receive therefor script covering the same number of acres surrendered inside the reserve. With that script it was possible to take any non-mineral, unappropriated public land. Thus the forest reserve script became alike valuable with the soldiers' additional homestead script.



A HOMESTEAD ENTRY
Made and commuted in Nebraska. No improvements were made on the land beyond what is shown in the photograph



A HOMESTEAD IN THE FOREST
Made from the timber

The forest reserves were first located by rangers who went over the land to see whether it was desirable to have it constituted a forest reserve. The rangers make their reports upon localities to a supervisor of forest reserves of the government and by a series of recommendations the President is finally called upon to act. The procedure is clear and simple and one under which, it would seem, no fraud could be worked. But forthwith, particularly in California, the land speculators began by bribing the inspectors to return lands within limits containing worthless state land which could be obtained at a low price. If common report is to be believed they then bribed the supervisor for the State of California to report favorably upon the same limits. The chief of the proper division of the

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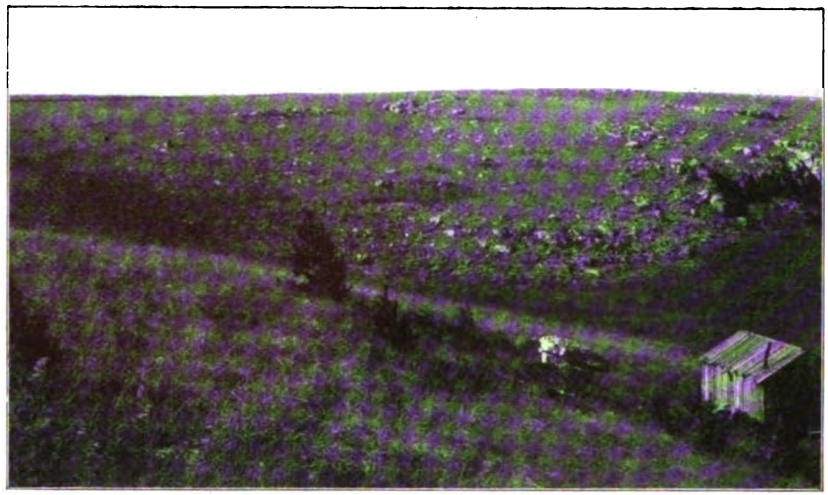

ANOTHER HOMESTEAD ENTRY SHOWING "IMPROVEMENTS"

It is in the Great Falls Land District, Montana. The filing was made by a "homesteader" three years ago. The shack is in a small protected gulch, where the entryman is said to sleep several times a year. The balance of his land is rich and arable, adjoining land producing sixty bushels of oats per acre

general land office is said to have been bribed to report favorably upon them and pass them up to the commissioner of the land office. The commissioner of the land office was not bribed, but, presuming everything to be all right, passed them on to the secretary, who, in turn, approved of them, and the President proclaimed the prescribed limits to be forest reserves, including the worthless lands.

Hyde and Benson, real estate men of San Francisco, purchased at a very low price from the state these same worthless lands, only to relinquish them later to the general government and get script worth from four to six times as much as the lands surrendered. The operations of this firm extended into eighteen different federal districts, some twelve states and territories, and with this perfectly legal script, lands were located as far east as a line drawn through Wisconsin and Louisiana. Hyde and Benson's operations aggregate probably between forty and fifty thousand acres, including much valuable timber land, and doubtless in many instances, even mineral land and land valuable for water on the cattle ranges.

Their case is now in the courts.

Some of the greatest land frauds have been committed under what is termed "state selections." In lieu of portions of government grants lost to a state by reason of conflict with reservations or with forest reserves, the state was permitted to make a selection of an equal acreage of unappropriated lands in any other portion of its domain. Under state selections the railroad companies in the West have recently been able to obtain a vast acreage of coal lands and with them to build up a monopoly in coal which has kept the price of that commodity up and which, last year, resulted in the most disastrous coal famine in western history. By employing geologists the railroads learned where the coal lands lay, and then, well knowing their mineral and consequently their forbidden character, they sent their agents to the state land boards offering to buy these lands, provided the state could secure them from the government on the state's quota. State officials, being eager to secure money for struggling state institutions for which the grants were intended, and relying upon the representation that the lands sought were agricultural and not mineral lands, generally made application to the government for a "state selection as desired." The non-mineral affidavit which the government requires was always furnished by the agent of the railroad, and later, when the government required a second and additional non-mineral affidavit by an agent of the state, the state appointed the applicant for the lands as such agent.

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Had the lands actually been agricultural lands the state would have been entitled to select them and to sell them for from $1.25 to $2.50 per acre. Being, however, coal lands, the government should have received from $10 to $20 an acre, individuals alone being entitled to take them up in lots of 160 acres. By this peculiar method of wholesale "homesteading" the railroads secured a vast acreage of forbidden coal lands, besides cheating the government out of between $6,000 and $12,000 on each section. Many instances are on record where the land ring was so powerful at Washington as to be able to find means of compelling the general land department to certify these lands to the states despite the knowledge which the department had that they were mineral lands, and subsequently to issue patents to the state.

Supplementing this fraud and spoliation has been the acquisition of coal lands by "cash entry" or by "coal declaratory statement." Thinking to provide the western homesteader with his own fuel, the government arranged that any citizen of age could secure 160 acres or eighty acres of coal lands provided he swore the land was for his own use, that he had been over the land and was familiar with it. The government, apparently, did not realize that 160 acres of coal land is not sufficient to warrant the expenditure necessary to develop a mine, but the government did think it knew that the law would keep large corporations from monopoly building in the coal business and would give the poor man a chance. The reverse proved to be the case, for the corporations secured by the wholesale, "dummies," some of them from the riff raff and the scum of creation, others from the ranks of respectable society — one of them being a federal judge — to make cash entries with corporation money or perjured declaratory statements with a view to turning the lands over illegally to the corporation which employed them. These "dummies" were paid from $3 to $400 each for committing perjury, and frequently their power of attorney and their deeds were unlawfully turned over to the corporations before the land department had passed legally the lands for patent. In Carbon county, Utah, alone, the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad, through the Utah Fuel Company and the Pleasant Valley Coal Company, secured thirty-two thousand acres of valuable coal lands and in fact practically all of the coal lands in the State of Utah and part of those in the State of Colorado. In this manner the Union Pacific, through the Union Pacific Coal Company and the Superior Coal Company, succeeded in seizing nearly all the coal lands in Wyoming.

J. T. MARCHAND
Former attorney of the Interstate Commerce Commission, who presented the coal land cases to the commission

To aid them in timber decimation speculators "worked" through Congress a unique measure permitting the Secretary of the Interior to grant licenses or permits for cutting timber when needed for mining or other domestic or local purposes. Its purpose was said to be to assist miners in the development of their properties and thus to encourage mining. The late Marcus Daly proved to be a "pioneer" needing assistance and there were many like him. In the interests of his combinations which eventuated into

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EDGAR E. CLARK
The Interstate Commerce Commissioner who heard the coal land cases

the Anaconda Mining Company, a portion of the Amalgamated Copper Company, Daly, through his agents by purchase and by the "courtesy" of an obliging land department, procured many of these permits. Armed with them his companies literally mowed down the standing timber on a tract in the Bitter Root Valley in western Montana near Missoula, five miles wide and thirty miles long, in open defiance of the strict regulations of the act. During a period of ten years Daly's depredations continued unmolested until he had taken millions upon millions of feet of timber for which the government finally instituted suit, alleging $1,350,000 damages. After fighting unsuccessfully in the courts for several years the Daly estate has settled the claim for $156,000.

Still another timber act was passed by Congress, permitting a person to go upon known mineral land and to cut timber free for mining, building, agricultural or "other domestic purposes." As soon as the law was passed, speculators took portable sawmills and sometimes established stationary mills, cut down the timber everywhere, ran the logs down the rivers far from the mines, manufactured it and sold the product commercially throughout the country. After years of depredations they were pursued legally and the courts held that rough, broken or mountainous land within reasonable distance of land where mineral had been discovered, was mineral land within the meaning of the timber-cutting act. Finally the Supreme Court of the United States held that the words: "other domestic purposes," practically comprehended the smelting of ores and any purpose of a domestic character. Thus, as most of the valuable timber in the West grows upon the mountains and not upon the plains, and as there is scarcely any mountainous locality in the West which does not contain traces of mineral, the timber became open to attack from any one and to almost any extent.

The so-called public fencing laws seek to remedy a terrible series of monopolistic offenses. There are United States senators who are charged by government agents with being the most flagrant of "fencing" land thieves. These rich and powerful persons, desiring to use the public domain for grazing to the exclusion of others, have used the various other land acts to obtain control, in the manner described, of water holes, creeks, streams, lakes and springs. By controlling these a single individual is enabled to monopolize a vast area of grazing land. Originally it was the practice of these men to use force of arms in preserving imaginary boundary lines and in driving out all opposition and competition.

This method caused strife and frequent bloodshed, and consequently too much notoriety. Accordingly the "fencing in" of public lands was substituted. Single companies in western Nebraska, for example, have been known to fence in as high as three hundred thousand acres of grazing lands which are the property of the government. To remedy this evil the Kincaid Act was passed, allowing a homestead on such lands of 640 instead of 320 acres, thinking thus to satisfy the greedy. Thereupon the ranchmen in-

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duced their cowboys, and every one whom they could induce, to take up homesteads for them under the Kincaid Law. Instead of taking up these lands in a square body these influential thieves used the smallest legal subdivision, forty acres, as a unit. The method was to string a 640-acre homestead out in a straight forty-acre strip four miles long. Having located four of the "pseudo-homesteads" in the form of a great hollow square the thieves fenced them in. In doing so they of necessity fenced in huge acres of government land and applied them to their own monopolistic and illegal uses in open defiance of the law.

These comprise not all, but a major portion of the ways in which the public domain has been "grafted" or devastated. In some of its prosecutions for land frauds the government has aimed high. Will it aim still higher and will it reach those who have debauched most wantonly the public trust which has been placed in them by the people whom they have so shamelessly robbed?

SPURIOUS ANTIQUES

BY

FREDRIK W. SANDBERG

THERE is scarcely anything so fascinating to the average cultivated man or woman as objects which claim to be antique and thus necessarily suggest a certain mysticism or romance of ages past. Nobody will deny the subtle charm one finds in the possession of a fragment of ivory-tinged old lace, or a more or less disreputable-looking shoe-buckle, vouched for by "ever and ever so many generations" as having belonged to this or that royal or otherwise illustrious family, or the unspeakable delight of the owner of a hoary old copper coffee-kettle, the undoubted "antiquity" of which he fixes at a century or two before the aromatic berry was known either in Europe or America. This charming tissue of shadowy facts is embellished year after year by some anecdotal reminiscence connecting the objects with their original owners — a legend-making process which of course vastly increases their worth as "antiques."

Then some fine day an unfeeling iconoclast in the guise of a man of both practical and technical experience happens along and cruelly shatters the romance. He brutally declares that the "antique shoebuckles, delicately wrought and set with real rhinestones and showing so much character," are modern and made in a factory at Hanau, that the stones are no stones at all and not even backed with foil, but are strass given an antique tinge and metallic deposit through electro-process. He points out that "the exquisite piece of ancient lace, patiently wrought by pious hands in the subdued light filtering into the cell of an old cloister," is nothing but a bit of machine-made fabric with a piece torn out purposely here and there to mark the ravages of time, and then very skillfully repaired by hand. He adds that the "ivory tinge which marks the passing of ages" is obtained by steeping the new lace in a feeble solution of saffron with a few drops of iodide added.

He laughs the fair copper-kettle owner's enthusiasm to scorn notwithstanding her appeal to look at "the curiously shaped handle which speaks of the mediæval artist's ingenious individuality," and gives the address of the maker in Switzerland who has hit on the expedient of putting ordinary milk-pail handles on his "antique" coffee-kettles, thus giving them a bizarre note. In almost any peasant's kitchen one of these perhaps fully six months old "antiques" is dangling, sooty, stained and battered; it is eagerly purchased by the tourist from the very reluctant owner. When a few days after the salesman comes around,

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AN IMITATION SIXTEENTH CENTURY PANEL
It is in the French style, made of wood, and represents St. George and the Dragon

the peasant orders another "antique," stipulating the usual trade discount.

The public at large has at best little or no idea as to what enormous proportions the manufacture of spurious antiques has attained in Europe and, in certain lines, also in the United States. This applies not only to the imitation and production of practically all of the important creations of the masters of old, the prices of which, even as imitations, are prohibitive to the ordinary amateur collector of antiques; but any one with only a few dollars to invest also has innumerable opportunities to part with these in exchange for less ambitious specimens of the beloved antiques.

One may say without the slightest hesitation that the Americans constitute eighty-five per cent of the clientèle of the dealers in spurious antiques. What is most astonishing is that this clientèle is made up from the classes that vaunt themselves on their superior intelligence. It may not be complimentary to the fair sex to add the fact that perhaps more than nine-tenths of the Americans abroad with a predilection for things ancient-new are women. By what curious process of reasoning these good people imagine that they can come from America to countries where collectors and connoisseurs have searched for antiquities almost before the United States was known, and enter any little dingy shop and pick up hitherto unknown treasures, is not for me to pass upon. Suffice it to say that they do, in their fond and vivid imagination, and woe betide you if you venture to demur.

The natural consequence of such an incessant and constantly increasing demand for antiques has been the fostering of one of to-day's most prosperous industries. Particularly during the past two or three decades this industry has taken up branches which are as amazing as they are audacious.

Having been an ardent collector since childhood of certain specialties, and having had an unconquerable disposition to want to know why and how, I have had given me some very exceptional opportunities to become familiar with the methods employed in many branches of the manufacture of spurious antiques. Though of course there are exceptions, it is safe to say that the large majority of makers of and dealers in modern antiques are fully as honorable and responsible as any other merchants or trades people. A moment's reflection will convince any one that a man or woman who sells curios can not be expected to be an expert in each particular line of the infinite variety of objects they offer for sale. As to the manufacturers of certain lines in pottery, textiles, furniture, metals, etc., they rarely if ever make the slightest pretense that their goods are "authentique."

It is an intermediate class which uses the skill of artist and artisan to produce no matter what object of art, be it a Lucca della Robbia, a Henry II. sideboard, a Fragonard, a Cellini goblet, a Byzantine thirteenth century ivory or a Martin Luther's betrothal ring There is no limit as to variety. If these men are on the scent of a customer who makes a specialty of some line, they almost invariably reap a great profit since they

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are extremely well posted and have infinite resources at their command. The ramifications of their connections are so extensive and varied that one can not but wonder at their ingenuity.

I am personally acquainted with the manufacturer who furnishes a man living in the most aristocratic quarter of Paris with most of the marvels of "antique" furniture which are found in his apartment. This distinguished personage does not pose as a dealer — it would be too plebeian — he is a connoisseur "forced to part with a portion of his collections obtained by long years of discriminating study." He finds plenty of customers among the Americans, and should perchance his collections not contain the desired article, he "happens to remember a friend" or has heard of some family in such and such a street where it may possibly be seen — not bought — that is to say "unless his influence should bring about such a happy result." Of course the goods are his own since he has half a dozen apartments all more or less "salted" with these historic gems of art.

The woods most eagerly sought for in antique furniture are parrot, violet, ebony, candle and rosewood. Fashion has decreed against mahogany unless exceptionally fine in color and grain. Though great progress has been made in the last few years in the manufacture of antique furniture it is still a most complicated process. The woods used to imitate the rarer woods mentioned are chiefly maple, pearwood, aspen, sycamore, linden, poplar. Space does not permit a detailed description of the manifold and interesting stages through which a modern antique piece of furniture passes before being metamorphosed from a product of the most ingenious of up-to-date shop methods into a centuries-old magnificent specimen of a supposed to be well-nigh forgotten art.

How perfect is this class of imitations may be imagined when recently a cabinetmaker discovered a piece of furniture made by himself among the mediæval rareties in the Cluny museum of Paris. He informed his employer (Mr. C. of Orleans), who at once notified the museum authorities, whose very learned antiquarians were more than disagreeably surprised when the maker proved all he claimed. He had sold the piece in question for 600 francs to a party who had resold it to the museum for the modest sum of 6,000 francs. This enterprising individual was condemned to pay a heavy fine and to reimburse the museum

A DRINKING VASE OF GOLD
An imitation of the ancient Greek goldsmith's art

the amount received. Mr. C. testified that his specialty was the reconstruction of old furniture, and that the government, as well as municipalities, were his customers, not to mention private parties. He said it was exceedingly difficult even for experts to decide between his reconstructions and the genuine antiques. Since this episode Mr. C. has decided to sign all his productions.

It is very easy to deceive the ordinary customer with spurious antique furni-

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ture for the simple reason that the average buyers do not know the real thing when they see it. Women especially are inordinately fond of "showing off" and posing as judges of what they really know nothing at all about. It is hard to believe, but it is a fact, that an old trough, used as an oats feed-box, was changed into a Hispano-Moorish XVI-century marriage chest and embellished with the armorial bearings and devices of a haughty and illustrious Castilian family. This priceless gem was bought and carried to this side of the Atlantic.

That this naivété is not common to all American women I can vouch for. There is an exceedingly bright and fashionable woman with headquarters in one of the leading eastern watering places. Her specialty is "searching all over Europe for unique pieces of ancient furniture," especially of the Louis XIV., XV. and XVI. genre, for wealthy compatriots. Her name was given me by an artist in his line who furnishes her "unique" pieces in half-dozen lots. He said she was a splendid customer, paid for her orders in advance and never disputed the price. The only condition she exacts is that all her "unique" pieces must be antique and ready for delivery in from two to four months. I not only know the proprietor but also the foreman (a master craftsman) who directs the actual work. Often have I been invited to come out in the open court where, exposed to all sorts of weather, heat and cold, fierce hail and rain storms, one could see a number of splendidly made and really exquisite pieces of furniture in the process of being made antique. One does not know whether to laugh or be indignant at such wanton abuse, intended to deceive and to satisfy a ridiculous mania. My friend confidentially told me that this lady had ever so many "chateaux" in America and estimated her yearly profits at $8,000 or $10,000. The "searching all over Europe," means calmly staying in Paris till her orders are filled. She is an ultra *rara avis* of her kind.

What is true of furniture is true of everything else — the aim is the same, the process only varies. It is just now being debated whether to place the famous Tiara of Saïtapharnès on public exhibition in the new Museum of Decorative Art, inaugurated some months ago. in the Marsan pavilion of the Louvre. It was the intention to do this at the inauguration, but the administration differed as to its advisability since the subject is a most delicate one and sure once more to create bitter animosity in many quarters. It would indeed be very surprising if the tiara was ever again exhibited.

When it was proved beyond all possible doubt that this golden tiara, occupying a special case and place of honor in the Louvre collections of antiquities, was but a clever piece of modern workmanship, the erudite antiquarians and profoundly learned archaeologists all over the world received a shock from which they scarcely have recovered. The audacious making and disposing of the tiara — the greatest fraud of recent times — forms in itself an interesting bit of history, and perhaps the most useful lesson derived through the exposure of this now "famous" spurious antique is the fact that it is indispensable to consult men of practical as well as of technical knowledge when an important object is to be judged as to its authenticity.

In 1895 there appeared a notice in a Vienna newspaper to the effect that a most remarkable discovery of antiques had been made by some peasants in the Crimea; there were hints that the finders fearing government confiscation had fled the country. Following this came a notice in a Russian paper to the same effect, but giving a more definite description of the find, which was supposed to have been a large crown, bowls, bracelets and other objects of gold. In 1896 the Louvre museum paid 200,000 francs for a priceless antique which was exhibited in 1898 in a special case and provided with label inscribed:

Tiare en or offerte par la Colonie Grecque au roi Saïtapharnès.
(Olbia.— IIIe Siècle avant J. C.)

It is of massive gold, conic shaped, about ten inches high, and weighs a little over a pound. Immediately after its acquisition by the museum, affected under somewhat peculiar circumstances, there arose a rather heated discussion as to its authenticity, which was argued pro and con by the most celebrated authorities in Europe. One illustrious savant

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THE TIARA FOR WHICH THE LOUVRE PAID 200,000 FRANCS

It purported to be the golden tiara offered by a Greek colony to the King Saltapharnès in the third century before Christ

(Mr. C.), finished a some sixty-page article sustaining its genuineness with the glowing peroration: "One can consider the tiara as the work of a Greek artist, established at Olbia, heir to the traditions of an art which made the glory of Bosphorian goldsmiths and produced the marvels preserved in the Hermitage." Another learned man (Mr. F.), gravely proclaimed that "no modern artist was capable of producing such a work." Though not convinced, the opposition let the matter rest for a while, peace reigned and the tiara held its place of honor.

And yet, despite the savants— to make a long story short, the wonderful Greek artist who had produced this splendid masterpiece, over two thousand years ago, turned out to be a poor but extremely skilled Russian Jew named Israel Rouchomovski of Odessa.

He was brought to Paris at the expense of the French government, and for a few weeks was as jealously guarded as the man with the iron mask. He said he had made the tiara and a number of less important objects for two men (also Jews), who had furnished him with the gold and the designs. They had paid him but a pittance for his work, making him believe that these objects were intended for a great exhibition where his name would be given as the maker, and he thus gain fame and fortune. As he was extremely poor and rather illiterate, they counted on his never discovering their fraud. He maintained that he had only been furnished with drawings in outline and no model in relief, and proved all his assertions. As a final test, not having been allowed to see the tiara, he was furnished with a piece of gold and with this and his tools he was locked in a room in the Louvre and told to reproduce a portion of it. In this test he also came out triumphantly.

Rouchomovski was well paid for his time. Though he claimed to be an inno-

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AN IMITATION ANTIQUE
French furniture of the style of the sixteenth century

cent party the impression remains that he knew a great deal more than he cared to tell. It was pointed out that the originators of the scheme must have had the services of a man thoroughly posted in archaeology and with a knowledge of Greek inscriptions. This is no doubt true, but the bitter fact remains that had a practical expert been consulted before the purchase, the Louvre would have been 200,000 francs in pocket plus some additional thousands, and spared the ludicrous position in which it found itself through this colossal blunder.

Before Rouchomovski had been brought to Paris several artists who make repoussé their specialty had examined the tiara. Instead of being drawn up by hammer from one sheet of metal, it was found to have been made in three parts soldered together with great skill. The top was hammered from a circular sheet of gold, but the other two parts were simply bent together with ends joined the ordinary way. The soldering was concealed with minutest care, pierced and then elaborately chased. Traces of tools of which the ancient goldsmiths never had dreamt were plenty, and there were other evidences of its very modern origin. The inscription in relief ought alone to have aroused the gravest suspicion as this is never found on objects of Greek origin in repoussé.

But it was the wonderfully perfect state in which the tiara was found that made it at once the target of hostile criticism. Had the Louvre committee reflected on the conditions under which this marvel was supposed to have been found, it would have been condemned. Here was a cylindrical object made of thin gold, at least two thousand years old, buried under a mass of stones and earth, dug out accidentally by peasants in almost as perfect a state as when made! There are a lot of indentations on the tiara and these furnish a comical note in this affair. They were supposed to have been caused by the falling of the stones of the mouldering tomb. These stones certainly possessed a rare and discriminating appreciation of art, since they had avoided falling on any of the numerous figures in relief, but had dented in most of the smooth spaces. What was more, unless the worthy Scythian potentate had turned around a few times in his tomb one could not explain why dents were found on *all* sides of his tiara. However, there had been no miracle, the bumps and indentations were made by using alternately the ends of a common ball-pane hammer.

Most figures and groups had been taken from *Weisser's Bilderatlas für Weltgeschichte,* and lo, the distinct features of the noble Greek cast which the personages represented should have had, being Greeks and modeled by a famous Greek, were missing. The valiant helmeted heroes, Achilles, Talthybios, Agamemnon, Ulysses and Nestor, are not Greeks but — Russian Jews, and very ordinary at that. Rouchomovski's unconscious ethnical instinct had caused

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him to give his Greeks purely Semitic traits!

From this one may judge how easily Americans, who have neither training nor experience, are deceived by antiques a few months old. Besides they rarely speak the continental languages, rendering transactions more difficult. Only their sublime faith in their own judgment makes them doubt the plainest truths. A much traveled woman, a leading member of a prominent club, showed me but a short time ago a necklace made to order for her of "rare Egyptian antiques" set in silver. I did not dispute her word, but I know that not far from the Promenadenplatz in Münich the identical necklace may be bought, and should the owner of this "antique" examine the central medallion of her necklace, representing an Egyptian deity, she will find the word *Patentirt* stamped in almost invisible letters in the margin. Furthermore the stones are, or rather were, colorless agates that have been colored artificially.

An old object not artistic may be exceedingly interesting from its associations or as illustrating the development of the art or industry of its period, but to gather up a lot of expressionless, meaningless and inartistic stuff because it is old, is ridiculous as well as expensive, the more so when the chances are that the treasures gathered are but spurious antiques.

LASALLE CORBELL PICKETT

WIDOW OF THE GREAT CONFEDERATE GENERAL

BY

WILLARD FRENCH

ONE of the best-known women of America is LaSalle Corbell Pickett, one of the best loved, North and South, and still among the most popular in Washington society.

It is harder to speak of a woman than of a man — harder to speak of Mrs. Pickett than of other women, for she is so distinct and unlike them. The thousands upon thousands who have seen her on the platform know this, but not nearly so well as the thousands more who have met her personally and seen something of the depths of her soul. Words that must be used, as all we have to express ideas, fall far short of what we mean — they have been so overworked in groundless enthusiasm. They have become stilted and hackneyed. Mrs. Pickett is tall and exquisitely graceful, a woman of perfect taste, inherent sunshine, an exponent of ideal Southern refinement. She has beautifully waving iron-gray hair, swept back from a broad forehead, heavy eyebrows over large, hazel eyes that sparkle and flash and laugh.

Can it be possible that she is the widow of the great Confederate General George E. Pickett, who led his brave ten thousand in that awful charge at Gettysburg? Equally can it be that she is the mother of Major George E. Pickett, one of the best officers in the United States Army, to-day? One can not help feeling that it is impossible. The calendar has kept its tabs on Time, but Mrs. Pickett has been too busy with other things to indorse the receipt.

It is true that she had, at the start, every possible advantage over Time, for she was just what they all called her: "The Baby-Bride of the Confederacy," when she married the great General, in the darkest hours of the conflict, following the charge at Gettysburg. Full of brilliant conversation, quick wit, scintillating sunshine and good will for all creation, she is so undemonstrative and gentle that one must watch to realize that she is as much an effective leader, to-day, as her husband was almost half a century ago.

Mrs. Pickett has two little grandsons. But they never call her grandmother. Yet for her gray hair she is as young as

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they are. They call her "*Dear* Mother," with a marked accent on the "Dear." The older of the two boys is a third George E. Pickett, a sturdy little fellow with all the courage and fight of his father and grandfather, who will tell you, instantly, if you ask him, that he proposes to wear a general's shoulder straps, some day, or die in the attempt.

One Sunday afternoon with several others I was enjoying the attractions of her always open drawing-room. I protested against some effort she was making to assure my comfort, when Criss, the younger of the two boys, remarked:

"It's no use saying anything. Dear Mother has always been so kind to everybody that she can't help it any longer. She just can't stop, even if you want her to."

Mrs. Pickett might well be a celebrity, simply for the distinguished name she bears, but she is not a celebrity. She instinctively shuns the glare of reflected glory. A thousand times committees and managers have tried in vain to drag her to the front as the wife of the great General. If Mrs. Pickett should ever yield to the importunities of all who know her, and write a book of memories, it would be a library of social and political adventure, of battles and victories; with a gallery of almost all of the great ones who have figured in our history since the days when events came crowding toward the outbreak of the Civil War.

There are but one or two besides Mrs. Pickett who watched the grand duel between the first iron-clad battle-ships, the Merrimac and Monitor. The first time she saw General and Mrs. Grant was through a field-glass from near General Pickett's headquarters, when the two armies faced each other. Mrs. Grant, who was visiting the Federal camp, was firing the initial shots in testing some new cannon. While Mrs. Pickett sat in her saddle watching, an officer who had just spoken with her and was riding away, was instantly killed by one of the balls.

Lincoln and Grant were both old and warm friends of Pickett's and remained so through all the bitterness of civil war. The night when the present Major Pickett was born, bonfires were lighted all along the Confederate line, in celebration. Grant saw the fires from his headquarters and sent a scout to learn the cause. When he reported, Grant ordered bonfires lighted along the Federal lines as well. A few days later there was smuggled through the lines and into General Pickett's tent a baby's silver service, on which was inscribed: "To George E. Pickett, Jr., from his father's friends, U. S. Grant, Rufus Ingals and Surgeon-General Suckley."

The day after the great fire following the fall of Richmond, Lincoln, with a small body-guard, walked through the streets of the charred city. As he approached the corner occupied by General Pickett's residence, he directed the guard to wait, and to their astonishment ran two steps at a time up to the door and rapped. The servants had fled. The "Baby-Bride" had never seen President Lincoln, but she had read his letters to her husband and from him had learned to hold in the highest esteem the great northern President. On the other hand her environments had not increased her esteem for the Yankees at large, and from the body-guard waiting in the street it was evident that a Yankee was at the door. General Pickett was still away at Five Forks, but his young wife was not to be outdone by any man in courage in the face of the enemy. With her baby in her arms she opened the door and looked up at the tall gaunt man with the sad face and uncouth ways.

Without a word of explanation he asked:

"Is George Pickett about?"

To hear her husband's name bereft of its title by a Yankee, at that moment, was almost the limit, especially as many a rumor had floated about Richmond concerning the fate which awaited the leaders of the Confederacy.

With all the proud dignity she could command the Baby-Bride replied:

"*General* Pickett is not at home."

The stranger seemed disappointed and, as he turned to go, remarked:

"I am Abraham Lincoln, an old friend of George's."

"Not President Lincoln!" Mrs. Pickett exclaimed. The tall man shook his head, repeating:

"No. Just Abraham Lincoln, George Pickett's old friend."

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MRS. LASALLE CORBELL PICKETT
Widow of the great Confederate general

Following the instant promptings of the heart which still governs her, "the Baby-Bride" thrust her baby boy into the arms of the gaunt Yankee, as her best effort to express her veneration and confidence, saying:

"I am George Pickett's wife and this is George Pickett's baby."

While Grant was President, General Pickett with his wife and baby were guests at the White House for two weeks.

When General Pickett died, and through fraud on the part of those he trusted, his wife was left penniless, the entire South came to the rescue, urging her to accept a sum of money sufficient to protect her, as their grateful recognition of her husband's services. But she replied that she was no poorer than her beloved South and was as well able to support herself. She did it. She has done it ever since. And many a time, in the course of it, it has required, I fancy, a courage and fortitude fully equal to that which led the ten thousand through the awful valley of the Shadow of Death.

From the time of her husband's death Mrs. Pickett has resided in Washington, hiding troubles of her own that she might be free to lend a hand to others in trouble, and in spite of her busy life and vitality-consuming duties she has been the social favorite, from the White House down, through every administration ever since.

It is only recently that she has forced time from other duties to write for publication, and still more recently that she has consented to speak upon Chautauqua platforms, where her brilliant qualities as a lecturer instantly established a place of fame for her, all over the country.

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AN INTERESTING CAVALRY DRILL

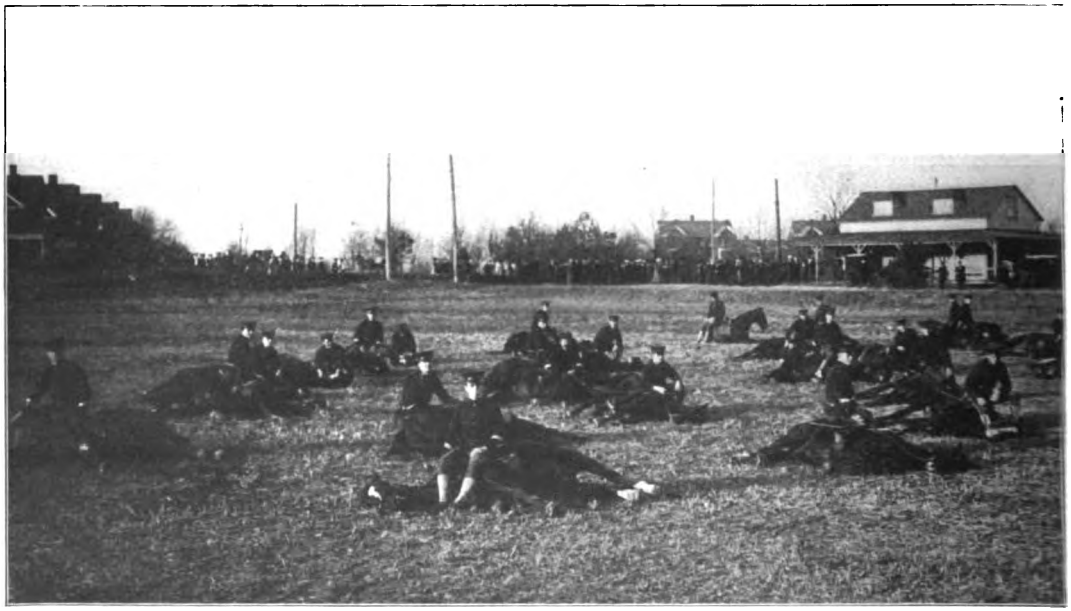
BY

FRANK N. BAUSKETT

THROWING THE
A strictly American maneuver

AN occasion which attracted a large crowd of persons prominent in both military and official society was the exhibition drill given by Troop F of the Thirteenth Cavalry and the Fourth Battery of Field Artillery at Fort Meyer, Virginia, recently, for the benefit of the Rough Riders' National Monument fund. It seemed peculiarly appropriate that a part of this fund should be raised in this manner.

The Thirteenth is the crack cavalry regiment of the United States, and in its



HORSES THROWN AFTER HAVING TAKEN
The body of the horse forms a breastwork for the

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HORSES IN CIRCULAR FORMATION
derived from the days of Indian fighting on the plains

drill and riding fully equals, if it does not surpass, the picked squadrons of Europe, where keen rivalry exists between the various countries with respect to their horse. There are a number of European commands of the highest class, the English and German probably excelling in precision of drill, and the French and Italian in the swiftness and daring of their evolutions. There is practiced in the Italian army what is known as the mountain drill, and so expert do the horses and troopers become that they do not hesitate to charge down a mountain side so precipitous that the ordinary horseman would not dare attempt it at a walk. Some of the performances of the Italian cavalry would not be discreditable to a flock of mountain sheep.

DISTANCES TO THE FRONT
soldier kneeling behind him

It is believed, however, that in the drill and riding of the Thirteenth Cavalry are found all the good points of all other troops, and while not riding with the stiffness of the Germans, all of the regular maneuvers are executed with the utmost precision, and with the dash and spirit of the French.

It is in what might be termed irregular maneuvers, however, that the training of the horses and the skill of the troopers is most apparent. At the recent exhibition, the bareback squad received much applause, the men riding standing upon the backs of two and three horses, singly, in pairs, and in pyramids of six; leaping hurdles while standing upon the bare

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STANDING MEN AND SITTING HORSES
When the command is given: Place your horses in sitting position

backs of two horses which raced side by side, and, in fact, performing all the most difficult feats known to equestrians.

A strictly American maneuver, and one of great interest, is that in which the troopers, in open order, form a circle. At the word of command, every horse lies down flat upon the ground, his body forming a breastwork for the soldier kneeling behind him. This maneuver was derived from the old days of Indian fighting on the plains, when a similar little circle was often compelled to make the ring good against a force which, had the troops been in any other formation, would have been overpowering.

The exhibition given by the artillery was also most creditable, the speed and dexterity with which the guns were handled being a quality which would avail much in battle.

The horses of the cavalry and artillery of the United States are not so showy as those of most European nations, but resemble more the mounts of the Japanese and Cossacks. The idea is to secure a sturdy, wiry horse, of fair speed and great endurance.

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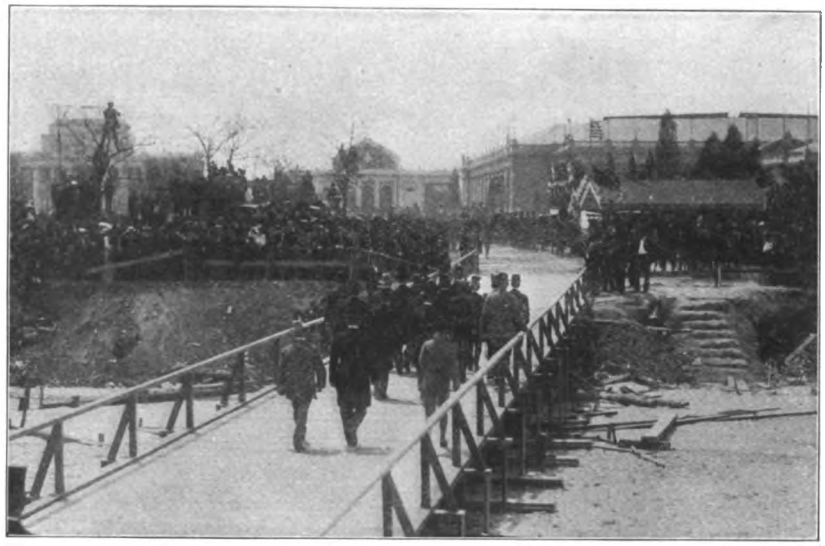
THE JAMESTOWN EXPOSITION

Illustrated from Photographs, copyrighted 1907, by the Jamestown Official Photograph Corporation, Norfolk, Virginia



THE CROWD GREETING PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AT JAMESTOWN

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Government Building Machinery Liberal Arts

A VIEW FROM

THE STATES EXHIBIT PALACE

It measures 300 by 500 feet, and is devoted mainly to agriculture

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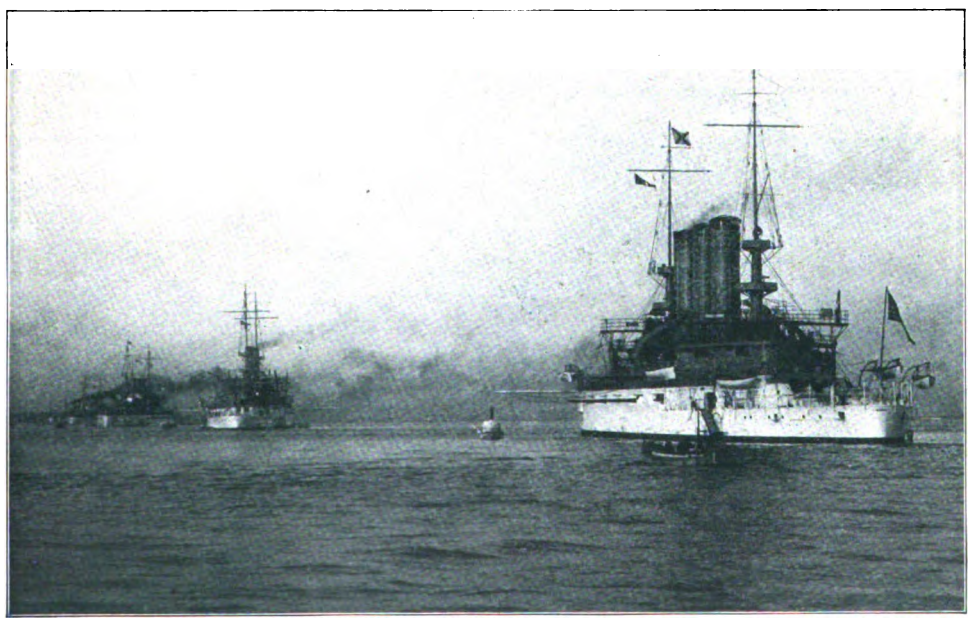
Manufactures Building

THE WAR-PATH TOWER



PART OF THE NAVAL EXHIBITION AT THE OPENING OF THE EXPOSITION

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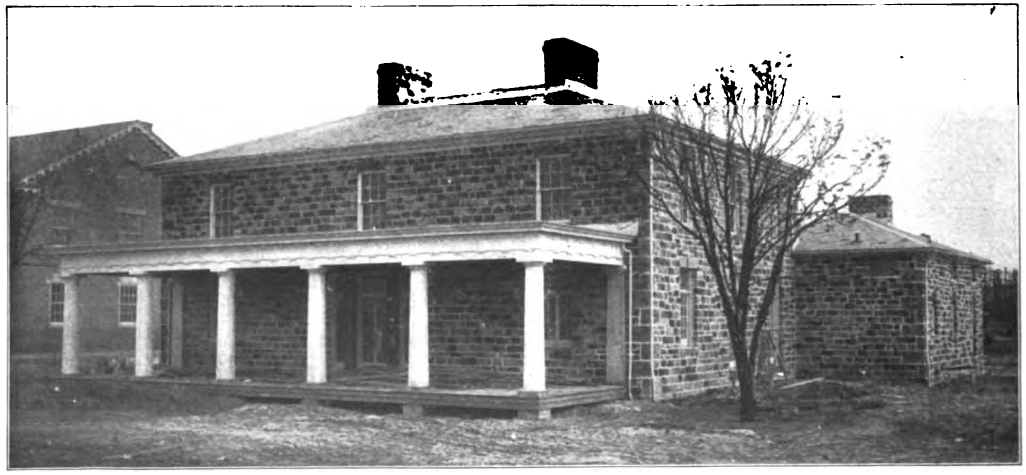
THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE BUILDING
A reproduction of Independence Hall, Philadelphia



THE OHIO STATE BUILDING
Reproducing the first stone house erected by English-speaking people west of the Alleghenies. It was the executive mansion when Chillicothe was the State capital

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THE DAUGHTERS OF THE CONFEDERACY BUILDING
A reproduction of Beauvoir, the home of Jefferson Davis

THE MASSACHUSETTS STATE BUILDING
Reproducing the old State House

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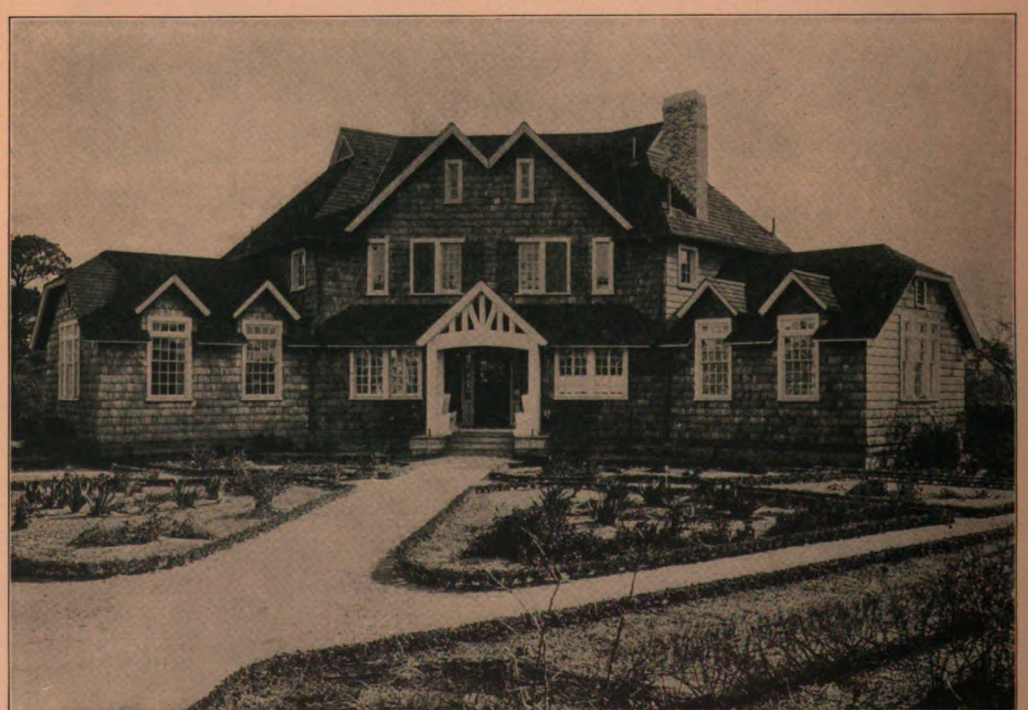
A MODEL SCHOOL BUILDING

This building and that of the hospital belong to the Arts and Crafts Village, which is one of the most interesting groups in the Exposition



THE POCAHONTAS HOSPITAL

A modification of the early colonial style common among the smaller buildings of the Exposition

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WHAT ASTRONOMY WILL DO NEXT

THE OPINIONS OF SOME LEADING ASTRONOMERS

BY

W. S. HARWOOD

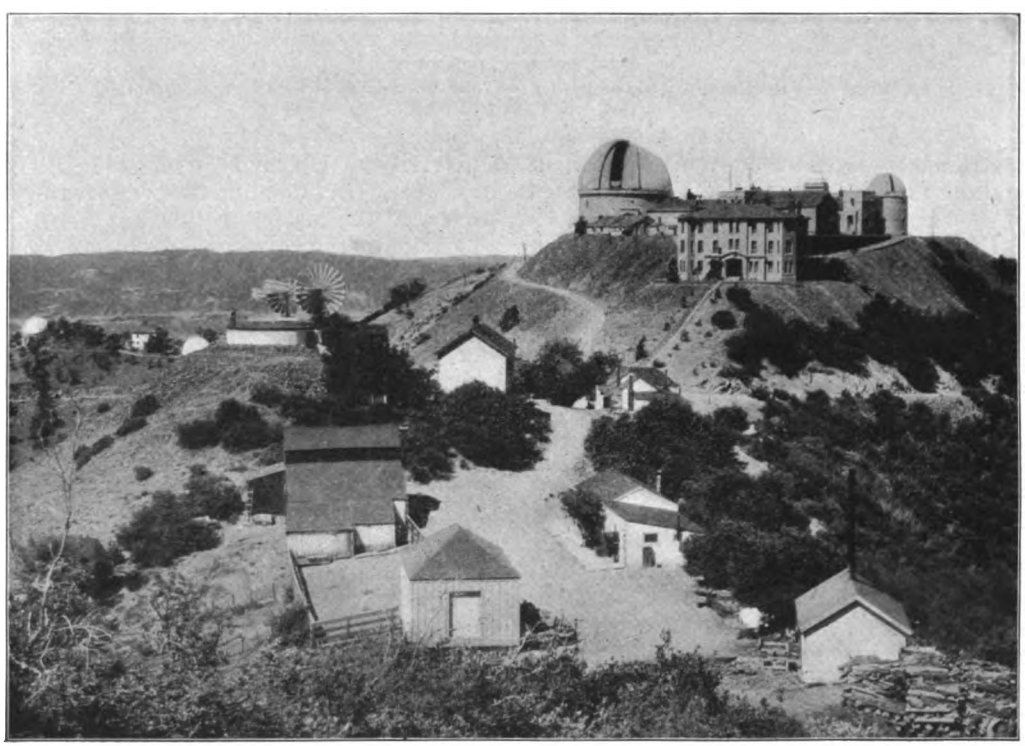
AUTHOR OF "THE GIFTS OF THE STARS," ETC.

AMERICAN astronomers take high rank. They have not only had the advantage of splendid observatory equipment, which is being substantially added to year by year, but they bring to the work trained minds, rare native talent, and that indefinable American attribute which we call initiative. Breadth of vision, capacity, devotion; these they have in liberal degree. Add to these a capacity to bring things to pass and you have a combination at once rich in results and commanding in character.

It will be well worth while to read what some of these American astronomers have said to the writer as to some of the problems that are now pressing upon them for solution.

Professor William W. Payne, of Goodsell Observatory, Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota, editor of *Popular Astronomy,* puts it in a nutshell thus:

"The greatest problems now before astronomers are stellar parallax — this line of work can best be done with large



LICK OBSERVATORY, MOUNT HAMILTON, CALIFORNIA

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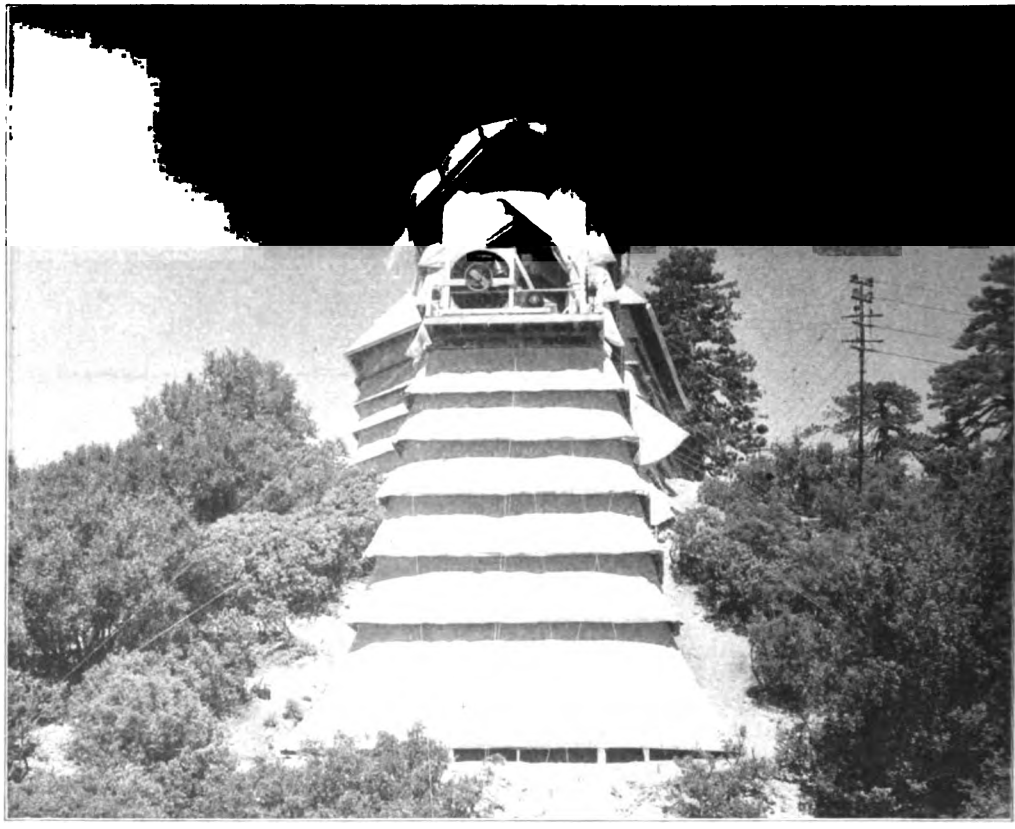

THE SNOW TELESCOPE
Purchased from the University of Chicago for the Solar Observatory of the Carnegie Institution at Mount Wilson, California

instruments — spectroscopy, a useful field and in visual observations the markings of the near planets."

Professor W. W. Campbell, of Lick Observatory, Mount Hamilton, California, brought out the following interesting points:

"The astronomy of the immediate future will be concerned principally with the study of the structure of the sidereal universe: the distribution and arrangement of the stars, nebulæ, etc., in space, and their relations to each other. A scarcely less important problem now making rapid progress toward solution is that of the history of the sidereal universe: the origin of celestial objects, and the evolutionary processes whereby nebulæ are converted into stars, and whereby new stars are developed into older and older types; etc."

One of the great observatories of America is the Yerkes, affiliated with the University of Chicago. Professor Edwin B. Frost, Director of the Observatory, presented the matter in this way:

"Among the greatest problems now before astronomers for solution, I would name two: First, the physical nature of the sun, and second, the structure and size of the sidereal universe. The first carries with it the problem of the nature of the stars, for the sun is a typical star of a certain abundant class. The second problem is taxing the utmost capacity of modern minute measurements, and it will be many years before a solution can be obtained. I see no directly practical value of it, but an immense gain philosophically and an important enlargement of the point of view of the human race. It was highly significant to learn that the most distant stars are made of the same stuff — same chemical elements — as our own bodies, that we in fact are typically part and parcel of the

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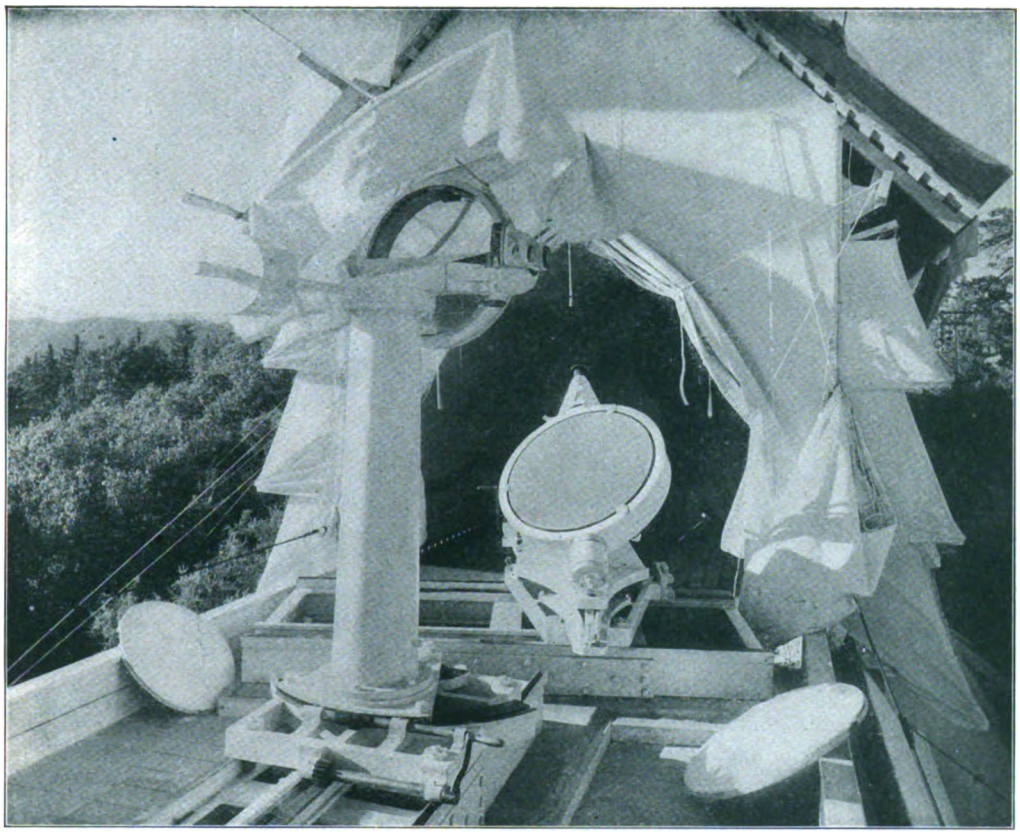

A NEAR VIEW OF THE SNOW TELESCOPE
Showing the sixty-inch mirror

whole universe. It will be a great step of progress in establishing a correct human perspective to determine the true relation of our sun and its system to the sidereal system."

Professor George E. Hale, of the Solar Observatory at Mount Wilson, California, in connection with the Carnegie Institution, speaks as follows:

"Of all the astronomical investigations now in progress, the two which seem to me most important relate (1) to the structure of the universe and (2) to stellar evolution. The former involves the study of the distances, motions, and brightness of the stars and nebulæ, their occurrence in groups, and their distribution in space. The latter seeks to account for the origin and development of the heavenly bodies, with special reference to their physical and chemical constitution, and the changes of pressure, density and brightness which characterize their evolution. A very important department of this latter investigation is the complete study of the sun, by the most refined modern methods, both as a typical star — the only one near enough the earth to be studied in detail — and as the central body of the solar system, on which we depend for our supply of light and heat."

There is much left to discover. The astronomer who has specialized in some one branch of the science — for it is becoming more and more a specialized science — knows better than any layman that, great as has been past discovery, greater things lie ahead. And the opportunities for such as have large wealth to give aid to astronomy are by no means exhausted. Take it in the one line of celestial photography. The wonderful progress made by the camera in discovery and record is only a forecast of what may be accomplished with still finer equipment. Until quite recently it was not

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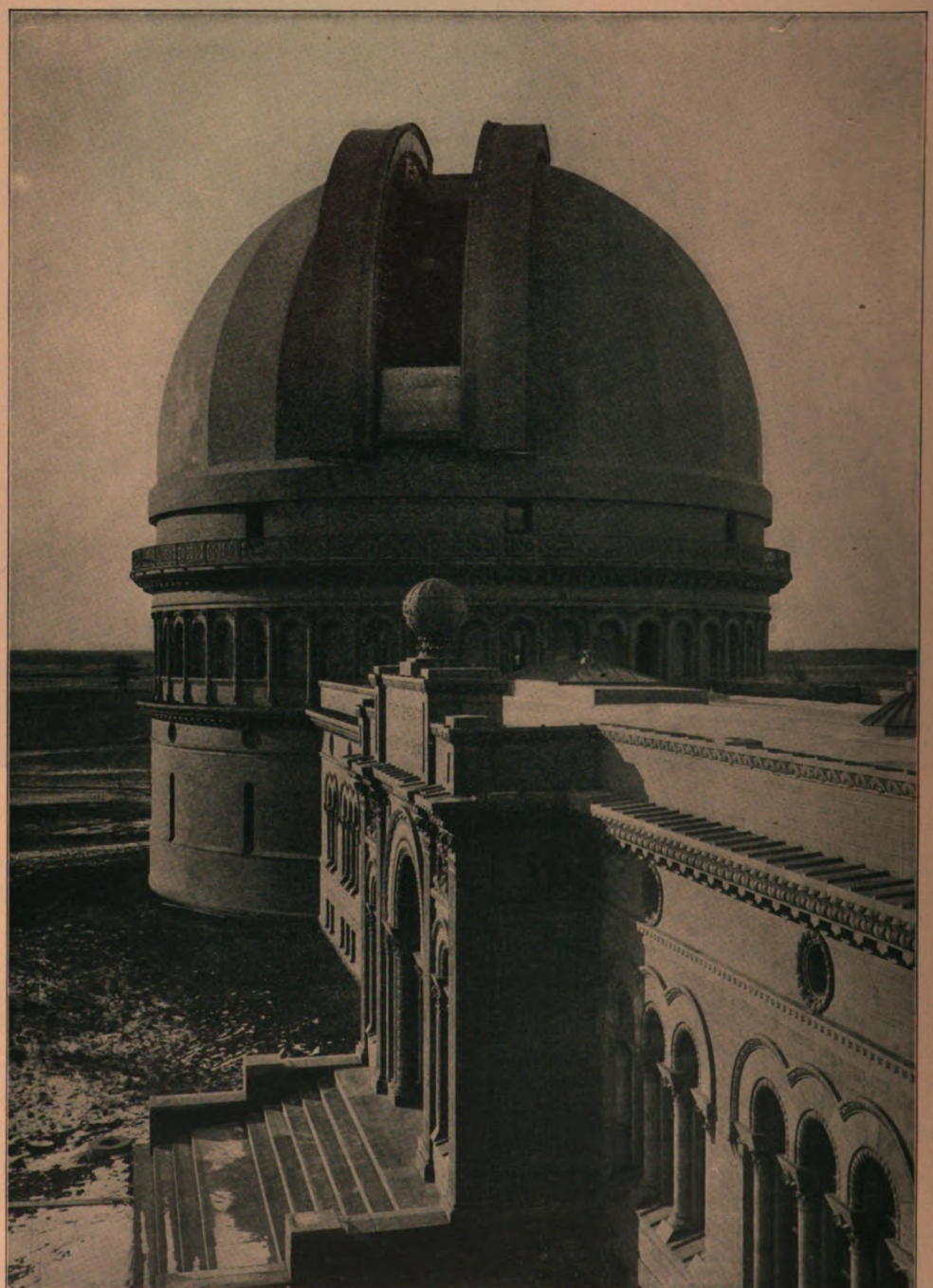

THE NINETY-FOOT DOME OF THE YERKES OBSERVATORY
The forty-inch telescope is visible at the opening

known that there were more than ten thousand nebulæ in the sky, faint patches of light in various parts of the heavens.

By the use of the great Crossly reflector at Lick it has been made certain that several hundreds of thousands of these

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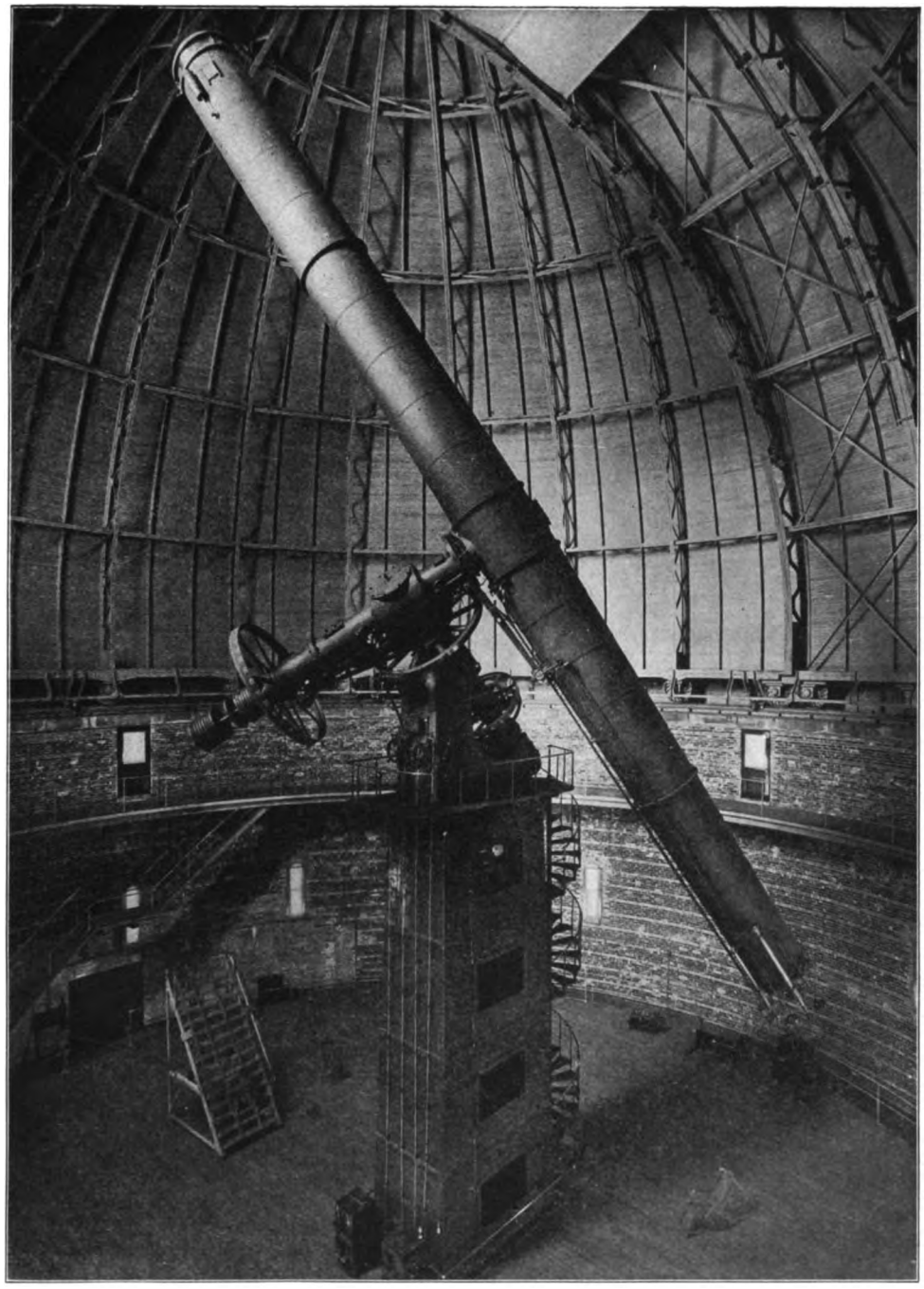

THE GREAT FORTY-INCH TELESCOPE OF THE YERKES OBSERVATORY
A comparison of the telescope with the chairs on the floor of the observatory gives an excellent idea of its immense size

nebulæ exist. The photographs made at Lick and Yerkes have shown that the majority of these nebulæ are spiral in form, thus confirming belief that they are rotating or whirling, that they are, in reality, new worlds in the forming,

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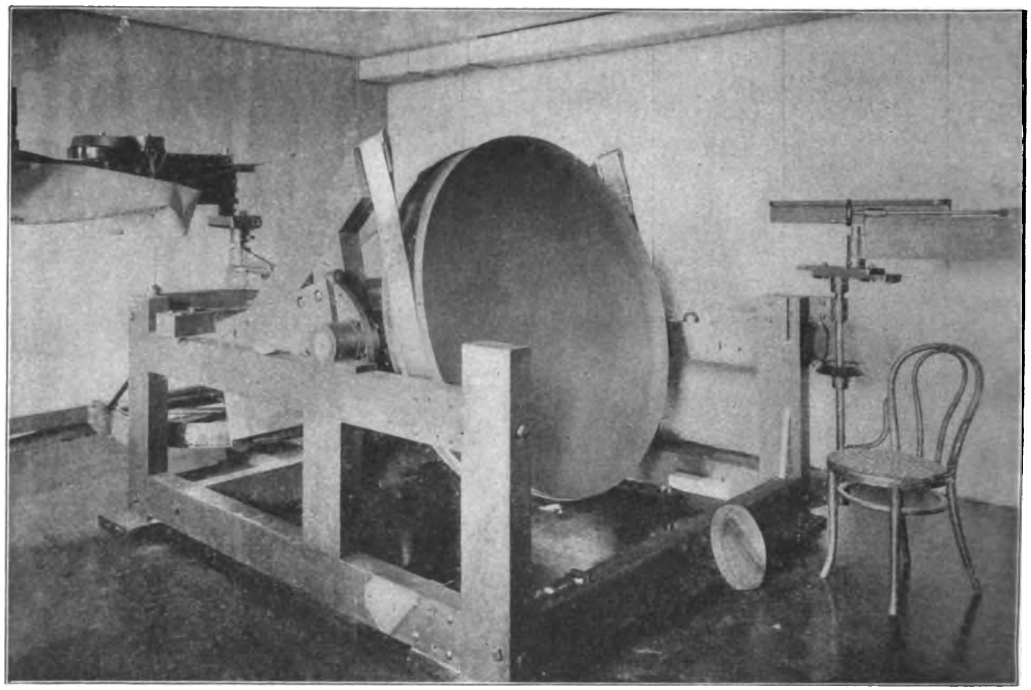

THE SIXTY-INCH MIRROR OF THE SNOW TELESCOPE
In process of construction

awaiting, through age-long processes, their turn to fall into the celestial order. This reflecting telescope has a diameter of a trifle over three feet. Professsor Perrine says that a telescope of similar character can be made with an aperture of ten feet or even larger, which, for photographic purposes, might prove of inestimable value to astronomy, collecting through its larger area a vastly greater amount of light and thus assuring larger photographic results.

Far across the continent from Lick another great observatory bears testimony to the public interest in modern astronomy. The comet which appeared in 1843 excited such great popular interest that funds were obtained by subscription for a telescope for Harvard. It was mounted in 1847, and was the largest but one in the world. Since that date bequests, subscriptions, and gifts have come from various quarters enabling the institution to accomplish results otherwise not attainable. A large part of the general expenses of the observatory are provided for in this way. An important feature of the work of Harvard — observation at high altitude in clear atmospheric conditions — was made possible by a fund left by the late Uriah A. Boyden. The station for this work was established near Arequipa, Peru, at an altitude of 8,060 feet. As this gives Harvard an observatory below the equator, the institution has command of stars from the north to the south pole. Harvard observatory has an invested capital of nearly a million dollars.

It is interesting to note that the number of stars in the sky which had been located and catalogued by means of the telescope was about two million, something like five thousand being visible to the naked eye, while the camera has brought to light myriads of other stars far beyond the reach of the most powerful telescopes.

The heavens are no longer a sealed book, but an open volume wherein may be read year by year, indeed, even night by night, the steadily developing story of man's indebtedness to modern astronomy.

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MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP OF PUBLIC UTILITIES

BY

JOHN W. HILL

CHIEF ENGINEER CINCINNATI (MUNICIPAL) WATERWORKS; MEMBER AMERICAN SOCIETY OF CIVIL ENGINEERS, ETC.

ALL the arguments that can be made for municipal ownership and operation of public utilities can be made against it, with the additional argument that the very highest measure of success in business management has been attained in private or quasi-public enterprises; and this will always be so, so long as we live under a form of government subject to frequent elections, spasmodic reforms and the lifting into office of many men, often unfitted to conduct with success the commonest affairs of life. Municipal ownership means the conduct of public utilities by men whose chief and sometimes only claim to consideration is the fact that they received more votes than their opponents at the last election.

Unless all men are capable of managing public utilities, municipal ownership and operation in principle is bound to be a failure, because any man may by the votes of his friends be suddenly thrust into an office which will require him to assume the management of enterprises calling for technical skill and experience; and herein lies the danger to public interests, because the staff can not be any better than its head, and under the withering and degrading influence of partisan politics is often worse than the head.

Political appointments are to be condemned, because they *are* political appointments, and not because of inherent objection to the man appointed, for no matter how great his talents, or how evident his fitness for the work assigned, the knowledge that his appointment is due to political influence rather than to recognition of merit, will clog his efforts and weaken his ambition, and the constant feeling of insecurity connected with public office will chill his ardor and shorten his reach.

All public utilities begin with plans and construction work, and here arises the first economy in favor of private ownership. In organizing the staff to design and build, merit and efficiency alone are considered, political considerations do not enter, and each man is selected and each move made to secure the largest, quickest and safest return for the money expended. In private enterprises, promises for efficient service can be made and the incentive to active and successful effort can be maintained. Civil service rules which are often a bar to high achievement and practical ability in municipal enterprises, seldom find place in private work. A competent official is recognized and rewarded even though his knowledge of Greek and grammar is not of a high order, and the adjustment of the members of the working staff to the positions of greatest usefulness is sure and easy under private management.

The writer at one time had occasion to seek the services of a competent transitman in tunnel work; several candidates were highly recommended for the place by the City Civil Service Commission, who, when put to work, succeeded indifferently well. Finally a man of large practical experience in coal-mine surveying, but with a poor record from the Civil Service examination, was employed for the duty, with marvelous results in the speed and accuracy of his work. This man had grown up in the coal mines, had

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learned to handle a transit and level as a forester learns to handle an ax, with only the rudiments of trigonometry at command and wholly unable to explain on paper the usual adjustments of field instruments, but he was as sure in his work under ground as if it was second nature. He made good, notwithstanding his failure to show a satisfactory record on Civil Service examination, but it was only by violating the Civil Service rules with regard to appointments in the city service that his talents became available. In a private enterprise his record of past experience and recommendations would have secured a place for him.

Freedom of action in choosing one's assistants seldom prevails in the conduct of municipal bureaus. Eminent talents are rarely known and seldom sought for among the employees of municipalities, because the term of office is short or uncertain and the encouragement to lofty and persistent effort correspondingly lacking.

In organizing a municipal staff, the first consideration is political service and availability for future political ends. A ward captain will usually rank higher in the estimation of the appointing power than an experienced mechanic, engineer, clerk or accountant, and utility and fitness for the task assigned is a secondary consideration, and too frequently not a consideration at all. Under such conditions public service is perfunctory, dilatory and inefficient, the cost of service is enhanced, and the comfort and convenience of the public impaired.

This is not necessarily due to inherent defects or incompetency in the individual appointee, but to a pernicious feature of American municipal government, which makes merit and fitness for service take second place to influence and patronage. Under such conditions any part of a public service which depends upon manual labor or human skill must be obtained at an increased cost over the same service from a system which knows neither influence nor patronage, and which marshals its employees according to merit and fitness for the duty assigned.

In organizing a working staff for a private corporation, the fewest men consistent with the work to be performed are selected, and effort is always made to bind them by feelings of self-interest to the enterprise, and retain them indefinitely, because their experience becomes a valuable working asset of the corporation, which can not readily be replaced on short notice. No such conditions can prevail in public affairs because the man at the top is himself a creature of chance or caprice, and his tenure is subject to the whims of the people who elevated him to office. He can not guarantee a term to his subordinates because of political expediency and his own uncertain base, and the fidelity of service which comes from respect for vested authority, and the skill and command of his superior, can rarely be inspired in employees on municipal work.

In the making of contracts and purchase of supplies for public utilities the private corporations have a decided advantage. The usual restrictions, hindrances, circumlocution and indirectness of methods forced by law and ordinances in public contracts and purchases of materials are swept aside in private enterprises, and the object, whatever it is, is sought by direct methods guided by intelligence of purpose.

Contracts for public works are so hampered by "safeguards" and by restrictions, that an experienced and conscientious contractor is bound to protect his interests by demanding prices above those he would ask for the same kind of work from individuals and private corporations.

The exercise of judgment and sense of fair dealing which prevails between men of honor and mental ability, can not prevail with the municipal officers and the contractor. The municipal contract is an inflexible instrument, open to only one construction, and that the construction put upon it by the officer himself.

Contracts made by private corporations go direct to the three material points: 1.—Kind and quality of work. 2.—Time of performance. 3.—Price and terms of payment.

Contracts with private corporations are treated, as they should be, as commercial transactions subject to their laws and customs, and free from the taint of political or any sinister influence. Differences between the buyer and seller on quality and price of work are quickly and fairly

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compromised, and as a rule work on the private contract is in progress before the municipal contract has completed its travels around the offices which by law are required to participate in its execution. The red tape connected with the letting and award of public contracts involves delay and expense which the bidder is bound to consider in making his prices for the work.

Private inspection and measurement of work is usually exact, without being captious, and the delay due to the list of officials who must be seen before difficulties can be met and overcome in public work are not encountered in private work, because some one in whom his employers have confidence is vested with authority to act, and his acts are by law the acts of his principals. In public affairs it is often a matter for the courts to decide as to who really has the authority to resolve disputed and troublesome conditions of municipal contracts.

Political and usually incompetent inspectors and inexperienced managers are the rule on public contracts, while a private corporation, from the necessity of conserving its capital, must have competent men to manage its work and avoid losses due to mistakes of judgment or errors of inexperience. Time and cost alike are essential elements of private corporations, because returns are sought for at the earliest convenient date, while public enterprises are usually conducted with small regard of time and less regard of cost.

As a personal conviction, I think the less the larger municipal corporations engage in lines of business which can be conducted by private corporations, the better it will be for the public at large. There is more need of coffee and sugar in a municipality than there is of trolley cars and electric lighting. But no one, not even our most aggressive demagogues, has proposed to establish a municipally owned and operated grocery store, but it may come to this in time, when the men who purvey our real necessities of life will be political partisans imbued with the spirit of political success, rather than with the desire to cultivate and secure the good will of their patrons.

It is proper that the bent of an empire or monarchy should be paternal, because, as a sentiment at least, everything and all avenues of progress start from a common center at the head of the government. Paternalism, however, is neither desirable nor possible in a republican form of government, where the officials from the President downward in the scale are chosen for a brief time as executives of public will, and with an opportunity too limited to admit of permanently fixing the stamp of individual ideas on public affairs.

The best service is rendered when there is hope of reward, and the best commodity produced where there is hope of profit. Where reward and profit are lacking, service and commodity depreciate in value. The rewards of political life are dubious and ephemeral, and the profits are not forthcoming by honest ways. All these things go to make municipal ownership of public utilities an undesirable end. The losses due to extravagance and misdirected efforts of municipal bodies will represent enormous dividends on properly applied capital, and when it is considered that any municipal work can be built and operated at less cost by private corporations than by public corporations, it is a marvel how intelligent people can be hoodwinked into the support of the popular and irresponsible clamor for the conduct of public utilities by municipal officials.

A case in point on one of the impediments to an award of municipal contracts is worth consideration. In a city contract involving nearly eight hundred thousand dollars' worth of work and materials, the lowest bidder, a thoroughly responsible party, was somewhat ambiguous in stating his prices on certain items, and to guard against error, he was asked to explain the intended scope of the doubtful prices written in his proposal, and upon reducing his explanation, which was satisfactory, to writing, his proposal was accepted.

A disappointed competitor prayed for an order of court restraining the director of public works from executing the contract because of irregularity in making the award. The prayer was granted and the director ordered to reject all bids and readvertise the contract, causing several weeks' delay, during which interval of time prices of materials were advanced

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and the cost of the work accordingly increased.

The court, in this case, held that the director had no right, prior to award of contracts, to confer with the lowest and apparently best bidder upon the contents of his proposal, as to the amount of labor and material embraced in the price of one or two of the many items; that it gave the bidder an unfair advantage over his competitors notwithstanding under the law and customs of the department he was the lowest and best bidder. The court held that the award of a public contract was not subject to the business and common-sense judgment of the director, but was a simple problem of arithmetic which could be solved by any clerk in the director's office.

The opinion of the court cost the city many thousands of dollars and weeks of delay, and was thought by the director and his advisers to be unsound in law and logic. But it was the opinion of a court, and as such had to be respected.

No such foolishness could arise in disposing of a list of tenders on a private contract, for only such people would be invited to bid as could certainly comply with the requirements of the contract. Personal interests would have no weight in making the award. Quality of work, guarantees, and time of performance and price alone would be considered, and no reasonable ground would be afforded for complaint on the part of the disappointed bidders. The buyer would seek the best article at the lowest price, unrestricted by the usual municipal conditions calculated to hamper his decision and thwart his judgment.

The faults of municipal contracts are not due so much to mismanagement as to the multitude of conditions to be met before a contract can be made, and the troublesome restrictions placed upon its performance after it is made. It can not be gainsaid that the private corporation can buy the same thing at a better price and upon better terms, and can adjust disputed points of performances more quickly and satisfactorily than can a municipal corporation. The parties can go at once to the gist of the difficulties and adjust them according to the judgment of intelligent and experienced arbitrators.

While private corporations are organized and operated for profit, and always have profit in view, the service rendered should be better and rates charged be more reasonable than the service and rates of a municipal corporation which attempts to perform the same work or furnish the same commodity.

If faults are found in the service or charges of private corporations, the cause should be looked for in the ordinances or laws granting the franchises, rather than in the management or operation of the private corporation.

The city of Philadelphia for years owned and operated a municipal gas-works, which eventually became an asylum for broken-down political heelers, and for some who were not broken down. The evils of municipal control shown in the poor quality of gas, indifferent and slovenly service, high prices, and large annual losses in the operation of the works, became so great that many of the people of this truly good (?) town, prayed that some one might be permitted to take the city gas-works from municipal control, even if they had to steal it, and thus get rid of an incubus which political inefficiency and greed had fastened upon them.

In course of time, the gas-works were leased to a great and powerful company which shortly overcame all the difficulties formerly surrounding the municipal gas-works, and gave to the people better service at lower prices, in addition to making an annual payment to the municipal sinking fund of several hundred thousand dollars, increasing from year to year, which was used to extinguish the overwhelming debt created by municipal control of the institution.

A certain city in the United States was about to construct large and necessary improvements in its water-works, after plans and estimates had been prepared by engineers not under municipal control. A syndicate of capitalists agreed to construct the works within the estimate of cost and time. It was found, however, that the law would not permit of the construction in this way, and that the work must be carried out under the management of the municipality, with the natural result that the cost has been exceeded by nearly seventy per cent and

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the time exceeded by one hundred per cent, with the works unfinished to-day. The parties who proposed to perform the work were men who had driven railroads over mountains, across broad rivers, and through the trackless wilderness, who know the exact value of materials and labor, and how to obtain the best results at the lowest prices, and who could not afford to tolerate extravagance or delay, because their profit depended upon quickness of action and certainty of results.

Extortion by private corporations should not be tolerated, and a reasonable appeal to the courts can be relied upon to prevent or remedy this. Public utilities under private control should be allowed an income which will represent a reasonable profit on just capitalization and honest and efficient management, and more than this can not be obtained, if the people are alive to their interests. It is always possible to compel satisfactory service at reasonable prices from private interests, and no one appreciating the value of his property can afford to antagonize the people upon whose good will and patronage his success depends.

HOME RULE IN INDIA

BY

YOTINDRA MOHAN BOSE

The revolts now occurring in India are no mere street brawls. They are the fruit of widespread agitation. The writer of the present article is a native of India and is deeply concerned in the national movement.

THE people of India to-day are attempting the solution of a problem, the most important that can engage their attention for the birth of "New India," and that is the industrial regeneration of the country. This movement is known by the general name of "Swadeshi Movement," the main objects of which are, first, to protect indigenous industries, and thereby free India from the forced industrial servitude of England; and second, to improve the general social condition and educate the Indian public to obtain self-government for India.

This movement, which has been growing in India for some years past in different parts of the country, has now assumed a regular well-organized form. The latest and the strongest impetus has been supplied from the unscrupulous partition of Bengal by Lord Curzon, carried out with a most autocratic disregard of public opinion, on October 16, 1905. The people of Bengal protested by inaugurating a boycott of British goods as far as possible and the spirit is still kept sacred. On the partition-day there were twenty or more public meetings in the city of Calcutta alone, attended by people from thousands to hundreds of thousands in number, and the ancient custom of "Rakhi" (a piece of silk thread tied around the wrist of a fellow friend as a sign of life-long weal or woe) was revived, regardless of caste or religious differences. Men embraced each other saying "brother to brother, side by side." The business of the city was practically suspended, as all the Indian shops were kept closed. As a sign of mourning no fire was lighted in any home to cook any food. Besides there were held thousands of protest meetings all over the country. From that date India stepped into a new era.

In the words of Vitaaldas D. Thakersay, the president of a $7,000,000 bank in Bombay, "Whatever Bengal might have done or failed to do during the last twelve months, she has undoubtedly given an impetus to the Swadeshi idea. All over the country to-day, among young and old, rich and poor, men and women, high caste and low caste, the word Swadeshi (literally, belonging to one's own country) has now become a

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household word, and the spirit of it too is well understood."

The most important outcome of this "Swadeshi Movement" is the birth of "The Indian Industrial Conference." The objects of this conference are (1) to collect expert opinions on different indigenous industries of India, and (2) "to promote, organize and supervise industrial enterprises all over the country." The existence of this assembly is an indication of the industrial awakening of India — and a very significant indication too.

As to the practical outcome of this "Swadeshi Movement," during the year 1905-6 there started in India several Swadeshi banks, insurance companies, trust companies and coöperative credit societies; about twenty cotton factories; other industrial activities such as sugar, leather, matches and soap factories, dye-works, oil and flour mills, pottery-works, coöperative Indian stores (for the quick introduction of Indian articles) all over the country; and the establishment of technical schools by private individuals. The total capital laid out in all these industries is approximately estimated to be from Rs.70,000,000 to Rs.100,000,000, which is undoubtedly a hopeful beginning toward the end.

This Swadeshi Movement is drawing all classes and creeds to form one national unit on a cosmopolitan basis.

Without going into details, the progress of the rising spirit toward social reform can easily be realized from the singular fact that last year at a national dinner held in Calcutta the Hindoos, Mohammedans and Christians sat together and the same dishes were served, which would have been absolutely impossible a couple of years ago, though our Christian missionary friends have been working on this problem for the last 150 years.

The present political situation in India is concisely explained in the following summary of the address of Dr. Dadabhoy Nacroji,* the president elect of the twenty-second Indian Conference held at Calcutta on December 26, 1906.

"A threefold wrong is inflicted upon us, namely, of depriving us of wealth, work and wisdom, of everything, in short, worth living for. . . . If we are relieved of burdens which ought not in common justice to be imposed on us, our revenues, poor as they are at present, will supply ample means for education, and many other reforms and improvements which are needed by us. . . . These just financial relations can be established at once. . . . It only needs the determination and will of the British government to do justice. . . . If there is will and conscience, there is the way.

"With solemn pledges, given by the British government, we have every right to claim an honorable fulfillment of all our British pledged rights.

"And now what are the British rights which we have a right to claim?

"First, We should in India claim that the administration in all services, departments, and details be in the hands of the people themselves of India. This is not only a right and a matter of aspiration of the educated . . . but it is far more an absolute necessity as the only remedy for the great inevitable economic evil; . . . and is absolutely necessary for the material, moral, intellectual, political, social, industrial, and every possible progress of the people of India.

"Second, As in the United Kingdom and the colonies, all taxation, legislation and the power of spending the taxes are in the hands of the representatives of those countries, so should also be the rights of the people of India.

"Third, All financial relations between England and India must be just and on a footing of equality. *We do not ask any favors. We want justice.* . . . The whole matter can be compromised in one word, Self-government or 'Swaraji,'* like that of the United Kingdom or the colonies. And with the moral sympathy of all who appreciate the universal freedom and peace of all humanity, we Indians with the new spirit of good will to all and malice to none, will carve our own salvation; and the new India will undoubtedly be recognized again one among the nations of the world to-day."

* Nacroji was elected an M.P., as a liberal member from Central Finsbury, at the general election in 1892, and is above seventy-two years of age.

* The Latin word, *suum regnum*, being literally in Sanskrit, *swan rajyam (swarajyam)*, i. e., one's own rule — Home Rule.

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THE PEACE CONFERENCES AT NEW YORK AND THE HAGUE

BY

HAMILTON HOLT

MANAGING EDITOR OF THE INDEPENDENT. CHAIRMAN OF THE PRESS COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL ARBITRATION AND PEACE CONGRESS

ON June 15 the second Peace Congress of the World convenes. The Czar's rescript calling together the first Hague Conference was only issued to those twenty-six nations having diplomatic representatives at the Court of St. Petersburg. At the coming conference representatives of all the forty-six nations of the globe, with the exception of the little negro republic of Liberia, will assemble to discuss affairs common to all. There is nothing like this in the annals of history. The second Hague Conference ought to be one of the greatest political events that have ever taken place.

Before the first conference assembled the world took no anticipatory interest in it. The Czar's proposition was considered the pious dream of a weak sentimentalist. With the exception of a notable series of public meetings for world organization held in Boston under the leadership of Edward Everett Hale, and an article in *The Independent* by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps appealing to our nation to take some adequate interest in the conference, no public challenge, so far as I know, was made to the "polite incredulity" on the part of the world to the Czar's great manifesto. But the time was ripe and The Hague Court was born, which we now know is destined to take the same place among the "United Nations" as our own Supreme Court does among the United States. In other words, the first Hague Conference took the first step in politically organizing the world.

Emanuel Kant has said in his profound essay on "Eternal Peace" — and his argument, I believe, has never been successfully assailed — that we can not have world peace until the world is politically organized. The great question at the present moment, therefore, before the nations of the world, is, How can this second Hague Conference take the next great step in world organization and make as great an advance beyond The Hague Court as The Hague Court did beyond all that went before it?

Chiefly to discuss this problem the National Arbitration and Peace Congress was held in New York city from April 14-17. This congress was undoubtedly the greatest gathering ever held for the furtherance of peace. Not only was it as impressive in point of numbers and geographical distribution of members as a national political convention, but in the personnel of its officers, speakers and delegates it was a much more eminent body.

When the President and Vice-President of the United States honored it with their written approval and when two defeated candidates for the presidency of the United States, eight members of the cabinet, ten United States senators, nineteen congressmen, three supreme court judges, twelve state chief justices, nine governors, sixty New York city editors, thirty multi-millionaire captains of industry, thirty labor leaders, ten mayors of cities, eighteen college presidents, forty bishops, leading rabbis and clergymen, twenty-six noted women, twenty state superintendents of public schools, to say nothing of numerous lawyers, philanthropists, farmers, scientists, etc.,

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joined together in a congress to further a great cause, its success was assured from the start. Over one thousand five hundred official delegates from nearly all the states in the union were present besides Mr. Carnegie's distinguished foreign guests. Every one of the nine formal sessions of the congress not only packed the platform, parquet, and two tiers of boxes of Carnegie Hall, but even the two spacious upper galleries. Besides these great sessions there were many less formal conferences, overflow meetings and receptions. The congress culminated in two magnificent and simultaneous banquets at the Astor and the Waldorf-Astoria, at which one thousand five hundred guests sat down to dinner.

It is impossible in a brief article of this kind to give any idea of the separate addresses, so many and varied they were. Many thought that Bryan's lofty eloquence was the most striking feature of the congress, others Baron d'Estournelles de Constant's Gallic wit and grace, or Mr. Stead's blunt outspokenness, or Mr. Bartholdt's statesmanlike resolutions, or Miss Jane Addams's talk to the women, or Mr. Carnegie's presiding geniality, or Dr. Edward Everett Hale's bugle-call for "justice first, then peace." All agreed that the children's session was the most inspiring. Probably the most important address was Secretary Root's — a state paper that doubtless foreshadows the attitude of the administration in regard to the questions to come before the second Hague Conference. The Secretary favors the limitation of armaments as proposed by Great Britain, but recognizes that the question is one that primarily concerns Europe. He firmly adheres to the Drago Doctrine, which would prevent the use of force to collect debts. He would also extend the principles of arbitration as far as practicable. He clearly pointed out, however, that the coming Hague Conference can only accomplish results in those spheres where the nations are agreed and not where they differ.

The final resolutions of the congress were comprehensive and progressive, and followed in the main the declarations of the Interparliamentary Union passed last summer at its London session. The most important resolution was that urging The Hague Conference to become a permanent institution by meeting hereafter automatically and periodically. Therein lies the germ of the international parliament, just as in the present Hague Court lies the germ of the Supreme Court of the World. The resolutions also urged that The Hague Court should be opened to all the nations of the world, that arbitration treaties should be drawn referring international disputes to The Hague, that before resorting to war nations should invoke mediation or an International Commission of Inquiry, that private property at sea should not be contraband of war, and that the limitation of armaments be discussed.

The honor of suggesting the congress is due to Dr. B. F. Trueblood and Mr. Edwin D. Mead of Boston, who have long been identified with the peace movement. The burden of making it a success, however, was borne by a committee of representative men of New York city, of whom Mr. Carnegie was the leading spirit and Professor Dutton the chief executive. Too much praise can not be given Mr. Carnegie for his part in this effort for true internationalism. It was a memorable scene when Baron d'Estournelles de Constant at the Astor dinner presented him with the decoration of the Cross of the Legion of Honor from the French Government. The six hundred diners arose to their feet with a common impulse to pay their tribute to the worth and work of "the Little Father of Peace."

What will be the outcome of this congress? For one thing it is planned to continue it year by year and Chicago has offered it her hospitality next time. It surely has had a great effect on the administration at Washington and hence on the American delegation to The Hague. If then through its inspiration our delegates can influence the second Hague Conference to take the next great step in world organization by resolving to assemble hereafter automatically and periodically and thus add to The Hague Court or judicial branch of the United Nations an international stated conference or legislative branch, then it will only be a question of time when we shall add an international executive and that will complete the Americanization of the world.

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SIX TERMS A MAYOR

A SKETCH OF THE PUBLIC SERVICE OF JAMES P. BAXTER, SIX TIMES MAYOR OF PORTLAND, MAINE

BY

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF

SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE

SIX terms a mayor, and not successive terms, either.

This is the record of James Phinney Baxter, of Portland, Maine. I refer specifically to the fact that the terms of service were not successive ones, so as to prevent the conclusion that a machine had been built up which made his reëlections easy and inevitable.

As a matter of fact the people of Portland have gone back to Mr. Baxter from time to time, to show their appreciation of his merits and his services, and will no doubt go back again. Sometimes they went back to him in repentance. Perhaps I can best illustrate this idea by referring to his experiences with the city's bridges. Some of the Mayor's friends say that the bridges have been his "hoodoo" and it would seem as if he had some reason to be somewhat superstitious about them.

For years Tukey's Bridge, built nearly a century ago, at the northern entrance of the city, had been considered a disgrace to the community. The same might be said of Vaughan's Bridge at the western entrance. Old bridges have been a godsend to certain classes of politicians for little games of hide and seek, as they afford almost unlimited opportunities for jobs, or to use an expressive local term, "hash."

In spite of the condition of Tukey's Bridge in particular, no city government had cared to grapple with the troubles which the rebuilding of it was sure to entail, but Mayor Baxter was accustomed to handling large building enterprises, and did not balk at the prospect, so he proceeded to procure drawings and estimates, marked out his plan for financing the undertaking, built a temporary structure to accommodate travel during the rebuilding and began work on the piers, which were rapidly progressing toward completion when a new election drew near and the disgruntled politicians were able to get in their work. The Mayor was defeated in the nominating caucuses by a few votes, and the bridge was left to be completed by his successor.

Meantime Vaughan's Bridge was being annually "repaired," although the commissioner of public works pronounced it unsafe. Members of the board of trade and others interested in the business growth of the city, said: "If we can get Baxter we shall get a new Vaughan's Bridge." At last they prevailed upon him to accept another nomination, and he was elected by a large majority.

As soon as he was settled in office he ordered surveys and tests of the proposed location of the new bridge to be made; the necessary state and local legislation was secured, plans were adopted, a contract made, a consulting engineer engaged. Nothing more was wanted but to watch proceedings and prevent "extras" from getting into the account.

But now, as in the former case, another election came on, and Mayor Baxter, whose election was not doubted by his friends, was defeated by a small number of votes, just about enough, it is said, to represent the people disgruntled by the bridge question. One can not, therefore, be surprised that Mr. Baxter's friends joke him on the subject of bridges. The people of Portland, however, have two first-class new bridges which they would not probably have had for many years but for him, though the men in power at

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their completion get the popular credit for them.

Mayor Baxter's business training and ability have been illustrated in another striking instance. Portland possessed a Poor Farm in its immediate suburbs which had lain idle for many years, and would no doubt, under ordinary circumstances, have been sold as a whole for an insignificant sum. It offered a tempting "scoop" for the class of speculators who have influence with city governments, one such man having already advocated its sale, and stated the price he was willing to pay for it.

The Mayor, himself largely interested in real estate, and thoroughly understanding how to handle such property, gave his attention to the problem presented. A plan was made, streets laid out, graded and paved, sewers built, and then the lots were offered at half the price asked for similar lots in the vicinity, with the proviso that a house not costing less than $2,000 should be erected within two years upon each lot purchased. The result was a rush for lots and to-day this tract of land is almost entirely covered with pleasant homes, nearly all occupied by their owners, and has become one of Portland's most attractive suburbs. The transaction not only netted the city several times more than the land would have brought in the lump, but has already added $2,000,000 to its tax list. Yet while the work of building the streets and sewers was going on, wiseacres shook their heads and declared that the money was being wasted, as nobody would build on the old Poor Farm.

One of the earliest acts of his first administration was the breaking up of the job system. It is needless to state that it stirred up the most feeling against him. Upon entering office he was worried by men expecting jobs in public buildings and other city work for political services. This system had been in vogue for years. Recognizing it as a form of graft, he first prevailed upon the public buildings committee, of which he was chairman, to advertise all jobs for competitive bids. This system was soon extended to other departments and still prevails.

A single anecdote related by one conversant with the particulars will illustrate not only the necessity for reform, but the Mayor's careful personal attention to the business details of his office. A few days after his first induction to office one of the officers of the Central fire station called upon him to complain of the heating plant.

"We are using twice the coal we ought to use," he said, "and still can not dry our hose. A new and larger boiler must be put into the building."

"I will go with you and examine your heating system," said the Mayor.

After examining the boiler he said: "Your boiler is sufficiently large; let me see the rest of your heating system."

Finally the hose room was reached. "Where is your radiator?" was asked.

"Here," was the reply, pointing to the floor, which consisted of a large wooden rack, from which no heat came.

"Have this rack taken up and let me see what is under it," said the Mayor. As it was firmly spiked to the timbers, a carpenter was procured and the rack torn up. Then it was found that the radiator, composed of iron pipe, was laid flat on the ground, and the rack floor built over it, without any space under it for air. Ordering the pipes to be taken up, a large excavation was made for an air-chamber, the radiator replaced and fresh air from the outside conducted under it. A day or two after the job was completed the officer came into the Mayor's office.

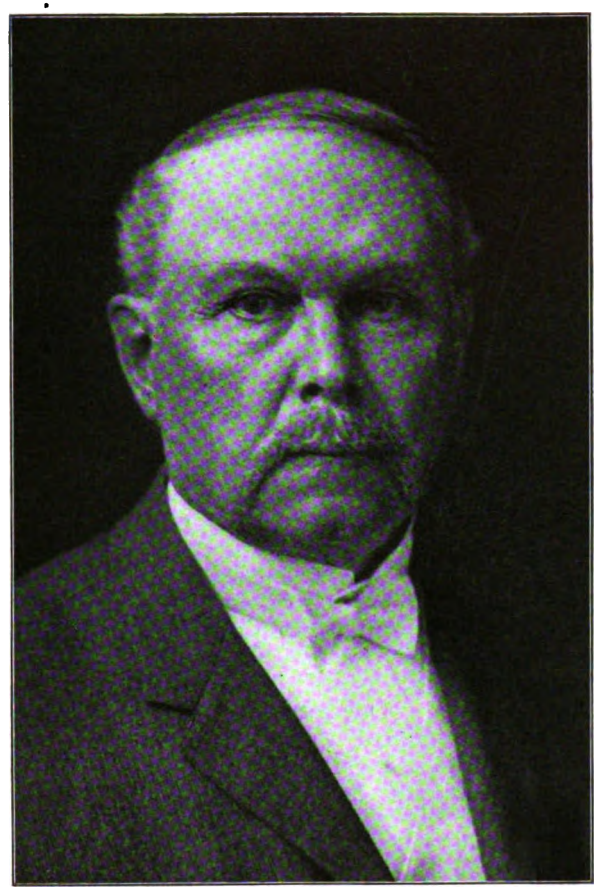
"How does your steam work?" asked the Mayor.

"All right," was the reply, "and we are consuming about half the coal we were before that job was done."

Inquiry divulged the fact that the original job had been done by a notorious ward worker, who had never learned a steamfitter's trade. The political way of treating a matter like this would have been to turn it over to some political favorite who would have installed an entire new heating plant at an expense several times larger than necessary.

Founder of the Associated Charities of Portland and the Portland Society of Art, and their long-time president; president of the Portland Public Library for which he erected a magnificent building of red freestone, and presented it to the city; president likewise of the Maine

Historical Society, the New England Historic Genealogical Society, the Portland Savings Bank, the Portland Benevolent Society and other charitable organizations; overseer of Bowdoin College and six times Mayor of Portland—these are but a few of the interests, all of a public nature, to which Mr. Baxter has devoted his time and talents. His historical works, the last of which is "The Life and Voyages of Jacques Cartier," are known at home and abroad. But Mr. Baxter's greatest work, and that for which his administration of Portland's civic affairs will be longest remembered, is his park system, which he himself originated and planned to the smallest detail.



JAMES PHINNEY BAXTER
Who has been elected Mayor of Portland, Maine, six times

At the time he entered the Mayor's office, Portland possessed its Fort Allen Park overlooking the harbor; its Western Promenade, Lincoln and Deering Parks. It owned no land along its Eastern Promenade, one of the most beautiful drives near the city. Fort Allen Park had been partially graded but never finished. The Western Promenade, however, had been tastefully laid out and improved, and the same may be said of Lincoln Park and the Oaks. This was all that the city possessed in the way of park improvements. It, however, had an excellent park commission that had accomplished wonders with the small amount of funds placed by past city governments at its disposal, but had always been handicapped in its work.

With Mr. Baxter at the head of affairs everything was changed, and funds were soon supplied to improve Fort Allen Park, the appearance of which in a few months was entirely changed. Land adjoining the Oaks, greatly needed for its extension and ever in danger of being sold and covered with objectionable structures, was purchased on a long term of years payable in small annual instalments. Land, also much needed, adjoining the Western Promenade was acquired by exchange and then Mr. Baxter began the acquisition of land on the Eastern Promenade and also land to connect the various and widely separated parts of his park system. This system contemplated a boulevard around Back Bay, and by Mr. Baxter's persistent efforts, the owners of land about the Bay were induced to give the land necessary for that purpose.

To interest and educate city officials in park lore, the Mayor took the entire city council to Boston and entertained them at his own expense, that they might study Boston's splendid park system. Later, that the citizens of Portland might fully understand the park system he had devised, and what he had done toward securing its completion, he wrote a book on the park system of Portland, embellished with beautiful plans and views. This book is dedicated to the citizens of Portland.

Of course it will be said, Mayor Baxter must have created a big debt to have

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accomplished so much. No, he did not. He left no floating debt behind him when he relinquished office, and the permanent debt of the city he largely reduced. Nor was the tax rate increased above the average of the ten preceding years. He is an accomplished financier and clear-headed business man, and his improvements were made by a judicious expenditure of the public money. Here you have the secret of successful civic administration.

THE STORY OF THE SACRAMENTO FLOOD

BY

WALTER J. KENYON

OF THE CALIFORNIA PROMOTION COMMITTEE

DURING the spring of 1907 the double valley of the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers, in California, has been visited with a disastrous flood, breaking all previous records in the area inundated, the height to which the waters have risen, and the amount of damage inflicted upon the agricultural interests of the state. The great body of the overflow has precipitated itself along the flood plains of the two rivers, including the far-reaching and remarkably fertile islands which make up the common delta. These islands, together with large areas of the adjacent lowlands, are surrounded by levees, or dykes of earth, erected by private enterprise, against the seasonal rise of waters, and are said to be "reclaimed" land. This last and greatest inundation finds its cause in several unusual conditions, chief among them being the simultaneous flooding of the two rivers, an event which has rarely, or never, happened before, in the history of the state.

The river steamer Constance started up the Bay to renew her efforts in relief of the washed-out islanders in the delta country. The Bay from shore to shore was the color of well-creamed coffee, and the same tawny flood swept far out beyond the Golden Gate. The Bay is usually of a clear, pale green, and this spectacle by itself was ominous of an unheard-of condition up the rivers. After we had passed the Brothers Islands a deck-hand fetched up a bucket of water out of San Pablo Bay, and it proved to be fresh instead of salt.

Toward dusk the steamer entered the mouth of the San Joaquin, below Sherman Island, and her engines shook and trembled in the effort to make headway against the swirling current. Soon the night fell, a gusty, tumultuous night, with the sky filled with tumbled clouds, and half-lit by a hidden moon. An ark was clinging to the levee of Sherman Island, and from the murk a voice called out:

"Pick up the people at Seven-mile Slough — they're like to be drowned!"

The Constance was already headed for the point named, at the lower side of Andrus Island. As she thrust her nose against the crumbling levee, at Wolff's Landing, fully forty Portuguese — men, women and children — could be dimly seen huddled upon a firmer fragment of the bank, with the roaring torrents of flood water on either side of them pouring out of the island into the channel. Two bunches of horses were grouped near by, separated by another cataract. The people were safely taken aboard, and one group of horses was rescued, the other being abandoned for the time. It was later reported that this second bunch had been saved.

As the Constance turned her bow upstream again a passing launch could be dimly made out in the murk, and a figure in the bow bawled hoarsely:

"Number Two, on China, full of people, and the water topping the bank!"

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A RANCH ON VENICE ISLAND

The flood swept over the levees and filled the island full of water. In the midst might be seen the houses and barns which were fortunate if only their lower floors were inundated

From an anchored bark came the call: "There are two men at Jackson's Slough, Cap'n, if you can get them."

And an excited man screamed from somewhere in the dark:

"You can steam across country from Colusa to Collinsville!"

"Damn it," blurted out a man in the pilot house, "I wish I knew what the water is doing in Stockton to-night. I left my wife in a rocker on the parlor table, with two feet of water on the floor, and rising."

Off in the southwest, miles away, over a turgid, swirling waste, partitioned by many a line of wavering dam, a bunch of lights crept slowly along the low horizon bar. It was a steamer, on her rescue patrol. Now another was seen, to the northward, and through the dark hours others went creeping, welcome beacons to scores of the marooned. The whole fleet of river boats, of which the Constance was one, had been withdrawn from schedule service for a week past, to engage in this rescue work, in which independent steamers and numerous launches were coöperating.

A steamer came by for orders, and Anderson, who was directing the fleet, megaphoned:

"Go over to Isleton and take the people to the hills. . . . Keep away from the break on Brannan, so as not to give the levee your wash. As long as Grand Island isn't flooded, we'll move the people who are flooded first."

"Is Andrus gone?"

"Yes, and it took just about eight hours to flood it bank full!"

A disturbance arose down in the cabin, and out of the Portuguese jargon an interpreter gleaned that out yonder somewhere in the middle of Andrus Island, two farmers were marooned on a shaky barn, without so much as a skiff on which to come away. A San Franciscan, Mr. Shafer, stepped forward, said he knew the island, and volunteered to go after them. The searchlight of the steamer discovered a whitehall boat canted against a fragment of the levee. This was secured, and Mr. Shafer, with one of the Portuguese as a guide, pushed out in the dark. A long period of impatient waiting followed, at least three-quarters of an hour. A little girl broke into the cabin and called to her mother, "They found 'em but they can't get 'em!" It developed that she meant her kittens on the bank, not the men in the flood.

At length Shafer's boat came back into the light with four men in it. The two farmers had been found on a pyramid of sacks of beans, in the middle of a barn, the sides of which had already been swept away. Their time of grace was short. They were hauled aboard whimpering,

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and more dead than alive from the effects of their soaking and the pelting night wind. One man was grizzled and very corpulent, and he wore upon his head, after the manner of a toboggan cap, a heavy, home-knit sock, of gay coloring.

The rain came again and a harsh wind whipped up an angry sea. The current was filled with a drift of tule islands, with now and again a canted barn amid them, and sometimes a dwelling. And each of these had floated out of a break on one or another of the islands. Great shallow saucers are these islands, highest near the levees that rim them. Some of the larger ones are as much as twenty-five to sixty square miles in area. The flood breaks down the levee at the weakest point, overwhelms the saucer-like depression, and breaks out again at the lower end, rejoining the current after filling the island bank full.

Daylight brought clear skies and cutting cold, and the Coast Range, with Diablo in the van, was pale rose, under the heaviest mountain snowfall of many a year. The gangways of the Constance were by this time packed tight with rescued horses, and her decks were overloaded with a motley swarm of men, women and children who had been taken just in time from the crumbling levees. The steamer turned her nose down stream again, to unload at Martinez and other available points. After provisioning at San Francisco she was to rejoin the fleet and continue the rescue work. On the way down the channels, bunches of stock were seen, perched with barely standing room on scraps of levees that alone remained of the embankments around the submerged islands. Steamers, with barges in tow, were coming up, and all, or nearly all, of these animals were brought away. This self-imposed task of the steamer service saved hundreds of thousands of dollars worth of stock, and scores of human lives.

By its position at the lower end of the delta, Sherman Island acts as the cork in the bottle, in times of inundation. And by the irony of fate its levees were holding well, and promised to withstand the flood, which indeed they did; partly because they were somewhat higher and stronger than some of the others, but mainly because immediately below Sherman the ocean tideway begins, replacing the tortuous channels of the delta.

Bradford Island, on the other side of the stream, was making a tremendous struggle as the steamer went by. She

THE DESTRUCTION WROUGHT BY THE FLOOD
An agricultural region of great fertility, exceeding in area the State of Delaware, has been completely devastated

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RESCUING LIVE STOCK

In many places might be seen bunches of stock amid the floating remnants of barns and dwellings with scarcely room enough to stand on the unsubmerged ridges of the embankments round the islands

was half full of seepage, but she had not yet "gone out." The water outside was lapping the levee-tops, and gangs of men were raising the low spots with sacks of sand. A dredger was also lending its aid. But with all who knew the conditions up river, it was a foregone conclusion that Bradford would "go out" within the next twenty-four hours. They knew that when the crown of the flood came down, the water would roar over her levees and tear them into straggled islands, and possibly even these would melt away. Jersey, Bethel and Venice Islands, beyond her, had already gone out.

Sometimes the water gains its end by insidious little tricklets topping the embankment and quietly enlarging its ingress until an inpouring torrent develops. This can be forestalled with sacks of sand. But when the crown of the flood rises higher than the levee all along the line, then no device of man can save the land. Sometimes, again, the end begins with copious seepage that weakens the dykes and gathers in shallow lakelets over the rich plantations. Then, if the farmers be not blind, they will gather kin and stock and make all haste for the strongest heights of the bank. For in a while the pressing flood without will come smashing through the weakened wall of dirt, a roaring wall of water that will fill miles and miles of island bank full between breakfast and lunch. In this way three miles of levee "went out" on Ryer Island, while you could gasp thrice.

A strange thing is the lethargy of many of the islanders in these times of danger. Isleton was a pretty village in the bottom of Andrus Island. It had two hotels, and other appurtenances of an established community. When the levee on Andrus gave way, Anderson, of the steamer company, went in to warn the people away. He found the maids sweeping the hotel floors and conjecturing how far the flood would come.

"It will come to the end of the street," said one.

"It will come to the edge of the porch," said another.

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Anderson strode to the wall, stretched tiptoe, and gouged the plaster with his thumb.

"It will drown this mark," he said. "Go to the levee, and go now!"

Heretofore the inundation of 1862 has been the record flood in the Sacramento country, with that of 1904 a close second. But the high water of 1907 has set a new mark. At Newtown, just east of Rio Vista, there was an old oak on which the flood mark of '62 was recorded. I asked an old riverman the whereabouts of this oak.

"That old oak," he exclaimed, "why, you can't find Newtown! You can't find the place where it was!"

It is a remarkable fact that not a single fatality is recorded for the delta region, although there were a number in the upriver basins. In this flood of 1907, the low country for a distance of more than one hundred and twenty miles north and south, and in places more than twenty-five miles in width, has been converted into an inland sea of swirling, coffee-colored liquid, its surface dotted with floating barns and dwellings, and checkered with the winding lines of brush marking the tops of broken and vanishing dykes.

A teeming and beautiful area of intensive farming, which may be conservatively estimated at about eight hundred thousand acres, was affected by the overflow, the floods having covered less than one per cent of the arable lands of the state. The wonderful productiveness of the region will lead to a renewal of the slow and arduous work of reclamation. But it will require millions of dollars and years of labor to restore the conditions in this particular locality which existed at the beginning of 1907.

In the latter part of the week the flood waters began to recede as rapidly as they had come up. The valley people began to breathe more freely. Summing up the situation, it was found that seven of the islands, in all, had escaped inundation, among them being two of the largest, Roberts and Union. These form the southern area of the delta, and partially escaped the backset of the waters from the Yolo basin. The levees belonging to the flooded tracts will simply require more or less repair work to be as serviceable as ever. The inundated sections will drain rapidly, and this natural process will be accelerated by pumping stations, operating on a large scale. While it is expected that the big asparagus crop is wholly ruined, the land will be in condition early enough for an extensive planting of other crops.

One great good must surely be the outcome of the present disaster. The attention of the national government will be compelled to the long-ignored necessities of California in the direction of river and harbor improvement. An agricultural region of surpassing fertility, in area exceeding the State of Delaware, has now been completely devastated, after having been despoiled annually to a greater or less extent ever since the agricultural settlement of California. And all for want of river improvements which, in all probability, would not cost the amount of a single season's crops.

Many engineering schemes have been advanced at various times to prevent the recurrence of the Sacramento floods. A number of these are impracticable, on their face, because they propose to relieve the main current by one or more subsidiary artificial channels. It is apparent at once that any such diversion of current would immediately inaugurate a dangerous silting process in the parent stream, reducing its draining capacity as well as its value as an avenue of transportation. The only practical plan thus far brought forward would seem to be that of the Dabney Commission of Engineers, which was afterward formally adopted by the State Legislature of California. In this plan the engineers propose:

(a) To confine the flood waters to the channels of the various streams by means of levees, so as to prevent destructive inundations of the fertile valley lands.

(b) To correct the alignment of the river by cut-offs, where necessary, and to increase its channel capacity by mechanical means wherever current action fails to accomplish this purpose.

(c) To collect the hill drainage, which now loses itself in the basins, in intercepting canals, and convey it into the river at selected points.

(d) To provide escapeways over the levees for surplus flood waters during the period of channel development, and to provide for the disposal of this water in connection with the hill drainage.

(e) To provide for the relief of the basins from accumulation of rain and seepage water by means of pumps wherever gravity drainage is not practicable.

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

The Working of the Parole Law

By M. P. Evans
SUPERINTENDENT, CHICAGO BUREAU OF IDENTIFICATION

THERE has been considerable discussion recently as to the merits or demerits of the parole law. Some have gone so far as to advocate repeal of the law, but such advocates deal in generalities, and give no statistics or facts on which to base a reasonable argument.

In 1895 the parole law was applied to the State Penitentiaries at Joliet and Menard, Illinois, and all persons convicted of felonies (excepting treason, murder and rape, punishment for which is fixed by definite sentence) are since sentenced under the indeterminate or parole law. This law fixes a minimum and a maximum sentence to be served and authorizes the Board of Pardons sitting as a Board of Parole to determine the actual time to be served, according to the conduct of the convict and his previous criminal record if he has any.

Under the old law, rank injustice was often done in the inequality of sentence. First offenders with no money to employ eminent counsel and having counsel appointed by the court, which counsel were generally young and inexperienced lawyers, received long sentences, while professional criminals with "fall" money (money placed in a pool by a number of criminals) to be used in employing the best legal talent whenever necessary, were defended by first-class attorneys, and if not acquitted, usually received very light sentences. Now when these men met in the penitentiary and reviewed their respective cases, the professional with the short sentence and the first offender with the long one, they naturally, seeing the injustice done, had very little respect for the law.

The parole law to a certain extent does away with this. A person sent to the penitentiary under the indeterminate or parole law, after being there four or five months is given a printed form with a number of questions to be answered regarding his past life, or say for eight or ten years previous to his conviction. The object of this is to find out where he has been, what kind of a life he has been leading, for whom he has worked, etc. In examining these forms, we often find a space of a year or more left blank, which indicates that during that period the convict may possibly have been confined in other institutions. This gives the Board an opportunity to send photographs to several likely institutions for the purpose of finding a previous criminal record, if any exists. By obtaining this information, the Board is enabled to apportion justly the punishment, letting first offenders off with the minimum or short sentence and holding professional criminals for a longer period.

The cases of all prisoners sent to penitentiaries in the State of Illinois come up before the Board of Pardons for examinations for parole at the end of eleven months, providing the conduct of the convict has been exemplary. If it is found that he has served one previous term in the same institution, the case does not come up for parole for two years; if two terms, not for three years, etc. You can readily see the justice in this. It would not be fair to give the professional criminal the same chance of parole as the first offender.

The best feature of the parole law in my judgment is that after the convict is paroled, and before he is given his freedom, employment is secured for him during the period of his parole, which is one year. The conditions of that parole are that he must not visit saloons, must abstain from intoxicating liquors and

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keep away from all evil associations and influences, and must make a report once a month, giving a detailed statement of the amount of money he has earned and how it has been expended. This gives him an opportunity to lead an honest life if he desires to do so, while under the old law he was turned loose upon the community with $10 in his pocket, which was soon spent, and he again drifted into his old ways and haunts.

The general impression of the public, created by press comments principally, is that the indeterminate law does not keep the convict imprisoned long enough, while on the other hand, advocates of repeal or amendment of the law seem to think it keeps them in too long. The following statistics show conclusively the time served by convicts under the old law as compared with the new or parole law. It is to be remembered that in addition to the sentences served, the convict must serve one year on parole before procuring his final discharge.

For seven years previous to the passage of the indeterminate or parole law, from 1888 to 1894 inclusive, only twenty-two convicts were received at Joliet Penitentiary with maximum sentences for such crimes as burglary, larceny, forgery, robbery, etc., and the average time served was six years, seven months and eighteen days. From 1899 to 1905 inclusive, after passage of the parole law, the number of persons sentenced to the same penitentiary on the same charges was two hundred and two, and the average time served was seven years, one month and twenty-five days.

As a rule, convicts are paroled upon recommendation of the judge before whom tried and the state's attorney who prosecuted the case, but it often happens that even upon recommendation of these gentlemen, convicts are not paroled because the Board of Pardons finds that the recommendations have been made in the belief that the convict is serving his first term, while it develops later he has served terms in other penitentiaries; consequently the Board refuses to act on the recommendations. For example, during the session of the Board held in February, 1907, there were three convicts whose applications came before the Board for parole, who were among the most noted criminals in the country. In each case the state's attorneys and judges before whom they had been tried recommended minimum sentences. It was found upon examination that Henry P. had been arrested in Chicago on the charge of burglary in 1899; no bill, grand jury. He had served four years in the Ohio State Penitentiary on the charge of grand larceny. Thomas K. was arrested in Denver, Colorado, in May, 1892, for forgery and sentenced to the Colorado State Penitentiary. He afterward served two years in Minnesota State Penitentiary. The third, Michael O'B., had served one term in Missouri State Penitentiary, one in Ohio State Penitentiary and eight years in Kentucky State Penitentiary. Of course these men were not paroled on the recommendations made by the judges and state's attorneys, and their cases were passed for longer terms.

The records compiled by the Bureau of Identification of the City of Chicago from January 1, 1891, to June 30, 1895, and those for the last three years, show conclusively that the indeterminate law is a vast improvement on the old law and unquestionably tends to keep professional criminals away from the city.

Under the old law, the habitual criminal act was enacted for the purpose of punishing habitual criminals. In this sense it was a failure. It was necessary to produce a copy of the former indictment in order to indict a person under the habitual criminal act. In addition, it was necessary to have some person in court who was present at the former conviction in order to have the prisoner sentenced under the habitual criminal act.

Again, the habitual criminal act applied only to persons convicted and sentenced to the state penitentiaries of Illinois, and where convictions occurred in counties other than Cook County, to obtain a conviction under the act, it was necessary to bring officers or other persons who were present at former convictions from said counties. The result was that in very few cases could the county go to the expense of getting such witnesses. Under the indeterminate law, the Board of Pardons meets once a month in each of the penitentiaries, at Joliet and Chester, as a Board of Parole.

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THE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

The Board, in passing upon the question of parole, takes into consideration all arrests and convictions, no matter where they have taken place, and fixes the punishment accordingly. The result is that while under the old law, from January 1, 1891, to June 13, 1895—four and a half years — out of 184 persons indicted under the habitual criminal act, only thirty were sentenced for six years and over; under the indeterminate law, for the year ending December 31, 1902, there were passed for further confinement, four, to six years; two, to eight years; two, to eleven years; three, to sixteen years and twenty-six for the maximum term allotted by the statute for the various offenses.

Let us take the result of the action of the Board of Parole for February, 1903. Out of fifty cases for parole from Cook County, examined by the Board, only two men were paroled after serving one year, while of the old offenders, three were passed for six years; one for seven years; two for eight years; one for ten years; one for twelve years and six for the maximum term fixed by law.

Now as a comparison, sentences found by juries in this city under the old law were very light as compared with those found in other places, taking the crimes committed into consideration. For instance, out of 987 straight sentences from January 1, 1891, to June 13, 1895, 560 were for one year, forty-five for a year and a half, and 148 for two years.

In conclusion let me state that I believe that when professional criminals are charged with felonies and found guilty, they should be sent to the penitentiary and not to the House of Correction or County Jail. On the other hand, I believe that first offenders, especially where the case is of a trivial nature, should not be sent to the Reformatory, House of Correction or County Jail. There should be some way of releasing them on their own recognizance and giving them a chance. I think it would be far better to do this than to put the stamp of the convict upon them by sentencing them, as is often done, for an hour, a day or a week to the County Jail. There are great opportunities for reformation in first offenders, but comparatively few in the older ones. This is my experience in twenty-six or twenty-eight years, and after having handled from fifty to sixty thousand criminals.

The Making of the Modern Farmer

By Walter Williams

THE modern farmer is the creation of the modern agricultural college. The modern agricultural college is the result of the Morrill Act by which the Congress of the United States gave for the making of the farmer eleven million

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acres of land, the greatest single gift to education by state or individual. Under the provisions of this act, of which Justin S. Morrill, United States senator from Vermont, was the author, sixty-five institutions have been established, land-grant colleges as they are commonly called, Colleges of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts as they are officially known. Upon these colleges there is an annual expenditure of $11,000,000 by state and nation. In them are enrolled nearly sixty thousand students. Through them and their influence the modern farmer is made or made over.

The agricultural colleges have exceedingly broad foundations. They are at liberty to teach anything, even including the classic languages, that may be taught in any college, but the leading object "shall be to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts." To this object they confine closely their curriculum. Agronomy, animal husbandry, agricultural chemistry, botany, climatology, dairying, entomology, horticulture, shopwork, veterinary science, rural engineering, rural economics, farm management—along these lines runs the course of study.

The farming of to-day differs from the farming of yesterday. Yesterday the plow was wooden and drawn by an ox team or a single horse. To-day the plow is of steel, drawn by five horses and cultivating five acres daily. Yesterday one-half of one row in each trip across the corn-field was cultivated. The soil around two full rows of corn is to-day tilled by the three-horse cultivator with less effort and in less time. Machinery has made of the farmer a skilled workman. In thirty years his efficiency has been increased fivefold.

TEACHING THE PROPER SELECTION OF SEED CORN
Professor P. S. Holden, of the Iowa Agricultural College, lecturing to a class

The different conditions of the farm have made necessary different training for the farmer. Physical strength and endurance to combat the physical difficulties of farm life are no longer sufficient. Success as a farmer is not a necessary result of being born on a farm. The modern farmer must know much that his grandfather did not even dream. The care of delicate and expensive machinery, the soil and its adaptability for various purposes, transportation and business must be thoroughly learned. He is, with the aid of nature, whose processes he must understand, a manufacturer. The output of his factory he must sell, hence he is a merchant. The farm is capital invested and he is broker. For the training

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INSTRUCTION IN THE SPRAYING OF FRUIT TREES
At the Ohio Agricultural Experiment Station

of men and women in the complex science of modern agriculture we have the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.

The successful modern farmer must have business ability, but he must also know how to grow crops, feed animals and maintain the productive power of the soil. Every detail of farming may be understood and yet the farmer lacking business ability be financially a failure. The agricultural college does not teach business ability. No college endows beyond man's birthright. The agricultural college teaches the "how" of farming. The Experiment Station makes discovery in agricultural science. The college teaches the practical application. It points out that a certain variety of corn produces more on the same soil and with the same treatment than other varieties. It teaches that to secure the best results seed of undoubtedly strong vitality should be planted and shows how this seed may be best selected and stored.

Specific conditions change with localities, but all agricultural colleges teach first the fundamental principles which underlie all farming. Knowledge of plant physiology, chemistry, animal physiology, geology, physics, and of the application of these sciences to soils and plants, is necessary. These principles come into use everywhere. It is for the particular college to teach special adaptation. Upon the foundation thus acquired, the student of agriculture specializes. If he desires to grow stock he studies the origin, development and care of animals; if he wishes to raise corn or wheat he devotes his time to agronomy and its allied sciences. There are no longer professors of agriculture in the agricultural colleges. Instead are professors of the various separate and distinct subdivisions which combined we call by the all-embracing word, agriculture. The student who seeks to specialize finds class room and laboratory with open door.

Does training in agriculture pay? Does it pay to know that one hundred bushels of corn fed to a certain type of animal will yield $75, while the same amount of corn fed to another type of animal will yield only $50? Does it pay to know that one variety of potatoes will yield three hundred bushels per acre

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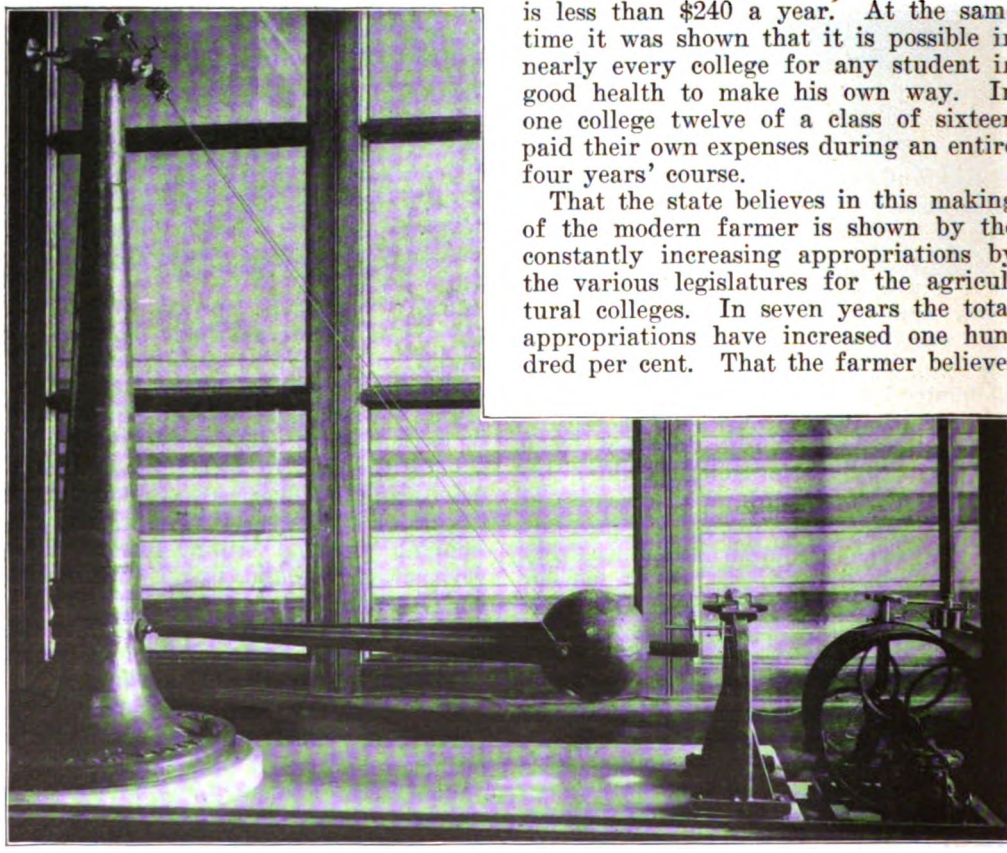
while another variety of potatoes on the same soil and with exactly the same treatment will yield only 200 bushels per acre? Does it pay to know how to save the life of a valuable farm animal by knowledge of veterinary science? With such questions the inquiry as to the profitableness of agricultural education finds emphatic and convincing answer.

It is sometimes said that an agricultural college education pays only the student who seeks to teach in an agricultural college or become an investigator in an agricultural experiment station. The demand for such teachers and investigators has drawn heavily upon the graduating classes of the colleges. But the training is profitable also for the modern farmer. If the result is measured merely by money standards, the agricultural education pays. If it is measured by other standards: leadership, higher ideals of life, social preëminence, the agricultural college education pays even larger dividends. Investigation shows that the training of the modern farmer takes him back to the farm and makes him a leader there.

The Michigan Agricultural College, the oldest college of agriculture in the United States, has graduated over a thousand men, of whom sixty per cent are engaged in active farm work and nearly all the others in teaching or investigating in agricultural colleges or stations. The percentage in other colleges is equally as large. The college is solving the problem of how to keep the boys on the farm and also the problem of how to draw from the city to the farm. The state has large benefit here.

Agricultural education is not expensive. An investigation shows that the average cost of attending any one of a half dozen leading agricultural colleges is less than $240 a year. At the same time it was shown that it is possible in nearly every college for any student in good health to make his own way. In one college twelve of a class of sixteen paid their own expenses during an entire four years' course.

That the state believes in this making of the modern farmer is shown by the constantly increasing appropriations by the various legislatures for the agricultural colleges. In seven years the total appropriations have increased one hundred per cent. That the farmer believes



THE SEISMOGRAPH AT BELEN COLLEGE OBSERVATORY NEAR HAVANA, CUBA

It is said to be the only instrument of the kind in the West Indies. It was installed just in time to record the earthquake at Kingston, Jamaica

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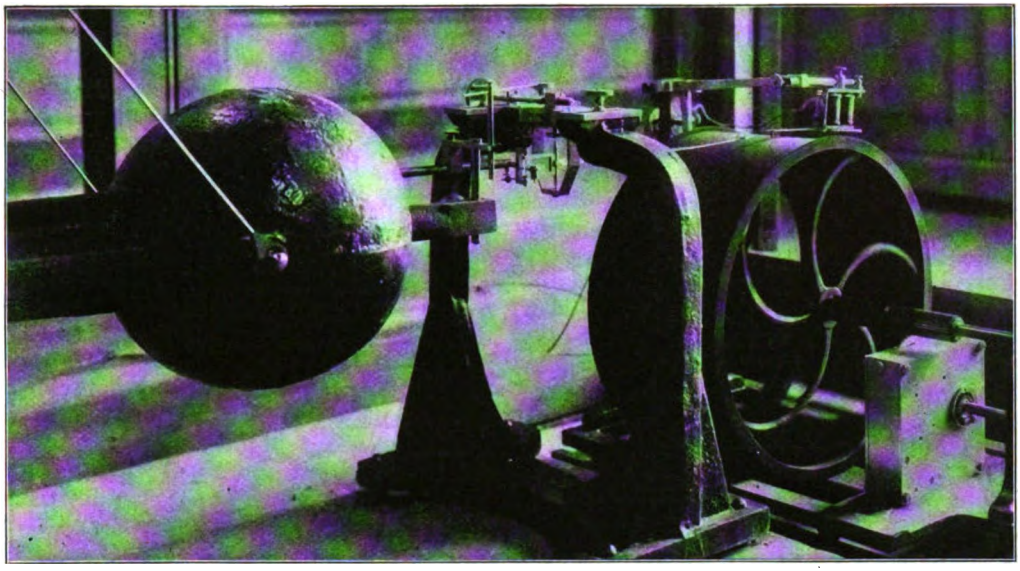

THE RECORDING APPARATUS OF THE SEISMOGRAPH

The least oscillation of the earth causes the delicately constructed mechanism to record the vibrations on the smoked paper covering the cylinder

in being made along the new and broad lines is shown by the constantly growing enrollment in the agricultural colleges. To-day the enrollment is larger than the entire number of students sent out during all the years since the first college began its work.

The New Seismic Station at Havana

By Louis C. Kane

AN event of great importance to the scientific world occurred at Havana, Cuba, the latter part of February, when the new seismic station for the recording of the earth's disturbances was officially inaugurated and the delicate instrument put into practical operation at that place.

This station is not under government control but is an adjunct to the observatory of the College of Belen, located a few miles from the city of Havana, which is conducted by the Jesuit fathers, and with the new instrument it is their intention to study seismic phenomena.

A small brick building has been erected on the brow of a low hill, and the apparatus rests upon a cement foundation laid upon a solid rock subsoil so that the instrument does not come into contact with the earth. Its base has two branches at right angles, one of which lies from north to south while the other extends from east to west.

The apparatus consists of two horizontal pendula, and a mechanical regulator placed upon a sheet of smoked paper.

The two seismographs are exactly alike, the one which lies from north to south will show the component vibration from east to west, and the other, which is laid from east to west, will show the component vibration from north to south. In the case of an earthquake the base and all other parts of the apparatus naturally follow the same movement while the perpendicular arm remains motionless as though suspended in the air by an invisible hand. The metal cylinder, which is covered by the smoked paper and revolved by clockwork, is located beneath the point of the pen at the end of the arm, which works horizontally and perpendicularly, and truthfully marks every movement of the earth's surface.

These seismographs not only exactly reveal the oscillations of the earth, but permit their distance, their extension and their magnitude to be measured with the utmost precision, whether there be trembling at thousands of miles distance or shakings at the bottom of the ocean. The instruments are so very delicately con-

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structed that they can not be worked to advantage within cities where even the ringing of church bells is apt to throw them out of gear.

These instruments are the first to be installed in Cuba and are said to be the only ones in the entire West Indies.

While the official inauguration did not take place until February, the apparatus had been completely installed and ready for a trial test, so that when the Kingston earthquake occurred, the instrument had its first actual test and registered the earthquake as having started at 3:14 P.M. on January 14, and lasted one hour and ten minutes.

How the Consumers' League Is Helping Industrial Conditions

By Katherine Louise Smith

MANY people regret the conditions under which employees work, but few realize that the consumer or purchaser is really the cause of the evils from which working men, women and children suffer. The organization of the Consumers' League in 1890 was the first public acknowledgment of the fact. To-day the Consumers' League, wherever found, is an attempt to make it easier for buyers to avoid injustice in their dealings, and to provide a list of "fair houses" or places where workers receive just pay and work under favorable conditions. It is also an appeal to employers to allow inquiries into the condition of their work-people, and to better it when possible.

Many clergymen, professional men and women and prominent people, are members of the National Consumers' League, a fact which, in reality, is a recognition on the part of the public of the need of better industrial conditions and an endeavor to place the responsibility where it belongs, namely, on the purchasers. It is the rage for cheap goods that injures the working people, but the last to recognize this are the women devotees of the bargain counters. They forget that every time a woman purchases a garment made in a sweatshop she is, as a matter of fact, ordering another at the same price. Because no buyer can readily find out the conditions under which garments are sold, the League has a list of "fair houses," or shops which deal justly with employees, and continually strives to add to the number. This can be accomplished because merchants are often willing, even at a sacrifice, to make innovations as to hours, pay, chances of rest and details pertaining to the comfort of the employees if these changes can become general so that business advantages may be equal.

The New York Branch, which is one of the most flourishing, early in its career drew up the standard of a "fair house" as one where equal pay is given for work of equal value, irrespective of sex, in which wages are paid by the week, in which the hours do not exceed those from 8 A.M. to 6 P.M., and in which a general half holiday is given on one day each week for at least the summer months. A vacation of one week with pay is now given in these "fair houses," and no children under fourteen years of age are employed. One important question agitated by all Leagues is that of seats for clerks. Where investigation was conducted it was found that in many instances there was only one seat for fifteen girls. All physicians testify that physical evils result from the long hours during which young women and girls employed in shops are required to stand. On this account the New York League adopted the principle that one seat for every three women is the smallest proportion that ought to be provided.

It is, however, in educating purchasers that the most helpful aspect of the work lies. The average woman does not stop to ask questions as to the conditions under which things are made, if they are only cheap, and she leaves her Christmas shopping until just before the holidays, orders trivial purchases sent home, and on Saturdays sometimes defers shopping until evening. All these are things broad-minded women will avoid when attention is called to them. It is just as easy to shop before the Christmas rush as after it begins, and to order goods early in the day that delivery men and clerks may not have to work over hours.

An erroneous impression in regard to buying sweatshop clothing exists, for it is not necessary to buy the product of those who toil under unfavorable conditions in order to secure garments at reasonable

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prices. It has been found that with improved machinery and processes, underwear can be made in sanitary factories, under conditions approved by the Consumers' League, at as small a cost as the sweatshop product. These factories comply with the League regulations and are granted the use of the League label.

Different methods are employed in various states to call the attention of the public to the League and its methods. Many branch Leagues publish at Christmas a special circular, giving names of merchants who make provision for the comforts of their employees. Some of these are free suppers or supper money, half force on alternate nights and extra time to employees in the morning. At recent meetings of the General Federation of Women's Clubs the principles of the Consumers' League have received endorsement, and from Maine to California the clubs have been pushing the question, though some states are more conservative than others.

One of the satisfactory fields for the work is in connection with schools. Professors of Economics at Harvard, Yale, Cornell, Chicago and Pennsylvania Universities are honorary vice-presidents of the National League, and lecturers on current events in fashionable schools for girls interest their charges in the history of the production of candy and clothing, as well as the welfare of children and clerks. So much has this influenced the girls of Wellesley that Boston merchants have increased their efforts to buy labeled goods. Smith College also has a League that puts its principles into vigorous execution. In all, the National Consumer's League embraces sixty-three local Leagues in twenty states.

Any one about to order a tailor suit in New York city can inquire at the office of the League for addresses of tailors who do not send their work to be finished in the tenements, or a merchant, by sending the names of the manufactories from which he obtains goods, can secure information for the benefit of himself and customers.

At present there are nearly sixty manufacturers using the label of the society, and these operate factories in eleven states and produce all grades of clothing, from the cheapest to the finest. They include some of the largest makers of underwear in New England. One means employed to further the interest of the League has been a series of exhibits of garments bearing the label. These have been arranged through the exertions of state or local leagues. The idea originated in Worcester, Massachusetts. New York followed with an exhibit where John Wanamaker sent label-marked goods, cases to hold them, and men to trim the cases. Pittsburg, Philadelphia, Grand Rapids, Michigan, Madison, Wisconsin, Chicago — all carried out the same idea. One of the highest proofs of the efficacy of the label is that it is imitated by various firms.

Undoubtedly the difficulties of the work are great. Purchasers are often selfish, and, unaided by public opinion, it is hard for even an honorable man of business to produce better conditions among those who are producers of the wares he sells; but the encouragement of distinguished economists and the awakened social conscience of our time are factors which help persons to base preferences not on cheapness but upon considerations of another nature. A few facts are patent. If customers insist that an employer treat an employee with fairness, and support him in the endeavor, he will do so. Much of the responsibility rests with women, for they are the shoppers. Purchasing in the early hours of the day renders work less arduous, so does carrying home small parcels, distinctly stating an address, and having patience with mistakes.

The child labor law of Illinois, prohibiting the employment of any child under sixteen years of age longer than eight hours a day, is largely the result of the efforts of the club women of Chicago. Other reforms are possible if women will insist. It is never improper to recommend one shop over another, and perfectly legitimate to try to patronize a merchant who gives his employees more free hours a day, more time for lunch, more chance to sit down, and who buys his goods from sanitary factories instead of sweatshops. As soon as this is done, merchants will see it is for their advantage to provide favorable conditions, and this part of the economy of individual labor will be uplifting.

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BOOKS AND READING

History and Biography

Lectures on Modern History. By the late Right Hon. John Edward Emerick, First Baron Acton, D.C.L., LL.D., Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge. Edited with an Introduction by John Neville Figgis, M.A., and Reginald Vere Laurence, M.A. London: Macmillan & Co., Ltd., 1906. Pp. xix, 362. $3.26.

This volume apparently is to be the "Chief monument of the unfulfilled renown" of Lord Acton. For the inner circle who were privileged to hear him, these lectures will restore echoes of "the deep, manly voice," whose very tones, as his admirers used to say, sounded "the accents of history." In the larger audience they can hardly fail to stimulate new interest in the study of history as the record of the enfranchisement of humanity. The nineteen lectures cover three hundred years of modern history, from the French invasion of Italy to the American Revolution. They are "masterpieces of lucid statement," abounding in suggestive and stimulating criticism; packed with allusion and brilliant with aphorism. The book, therefore, is not to be read and digested at a sitting but studied, read again and pondered. At times the author is guilty of careless writing; again he utters sentiments that sound like crass dogmatism. Yet in the presence of so much rugged strength, so much evident intensity of feeling, and such wealth of scholarly research, the critic may well ignore the one or hesitate to challenge the other. Here, moreover, are ideas that the younger members of the guild may ponder to advantage. Thus Lord Acton urges:

"I hope that even this narrow section of history will aid you to see that the action of Christ who is risen, on mankind whom he redeemed, fails not, but increases; that the wisdom of divine rule appears not in the perfection, but in the improvement of the world."

This may be old-fashioned; but to some of us who find it difficult to shape our faith to the currents of contemporary philosophy, who still dare to entertain the hope that in some way Providence yet has something to do with human history, such words, coming from such a source, are reassuring, to say the least.

The German Empire. By Burt Estes Howard, Ph.D. New York and London: the Macmillan Company, 1906. Pp. 435. $2 net.

This is an old subject in a new form. For the first time in English the German Empire is discussed purely from the constitutional standpoint, and particularly in the light of the constitutional law and interpretation which has grown up since 1870. We are shown the Imperial constitution as it was originally planned, and the present Imperial organization, developed through the labors of the jurists and the progress of custom. The author has kept throughout strictly to main issues. Beginning with the relation of the Empire to the individual states, the whole fabric of the Imperial constitution is examined in detail. Chapters on the "Kaiser," the "Bundesrath" and the "Reichstag," are followed by an able analysis of the method of making Imperial law, the powers and duties of the Chancellor, the qualifications for citizenship, and the organization of the judiciary. In addition there are excellent chapters on the historical development of the organization of Alsace-Lorraine and its relation to the Empire, the organization and administration of Imperial finance and of the army.

We are indebted to Dr. Howard for having penetrated the maze of German Imperial jurisprudence and the extensive discussions of the learned German authorities on the constitutional law of the Empire, and giving us the results of it all in one clear and scholarly volume, that all students of constitutional law and government will find indispensable. The volume is furnished with a translation of the German Imperial constitution, but there is no general bibliography of the sources used.

The History of England. From Addington's Administration to the Close of William IV.'s Reign. 1801-1837. By the Hon. George C. Brodrick, D.C.L., completed and revised by J. K. Fotheringham, M.A. Longmans, 1906. Pp. xx, 486. $2.60.

The present volume is the eleventh of the series of monographs collectively known as "The Political History of England." It can hardly be said, however, to equal the uniform excellence of its predecessors. The treatment of home questions is the work of Mr. Brodrick. Here the knowledge of authorities is evident; the temper of the writer also is moderate and his conclusions sound. As much, however, can not be said of the treatment of foreign questions, confessedly the work of Mr. Brodrick's collaborator, Mr. Fotheringham. The knowledge of the writer is neither thorough nor accurate and is apparently gathered for the most part at secondhand. His Napoleon, moreover, is still the old Napoleon, the pet aversion of the English writers of seventy-five years ago.

In his treatment of the American war, also, he is neither accurate in details nor sound in his conclusions. He shows no acquaintance with the work of American scholars and little with the best English writers. He is amazed that the Americans should beat the English on their own element, and he justifies the burning of the libraries and public buildings at Washington as

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"a fair and even merciful reprisal" (p. 146). In his treatment of the Irish the writer, presumably Mr. Brodrick, shows neither sympathy nor appreciation. He rarely speaks of O'Connell without some opprobrious epithet, of which "unscrupulous demagogue" is by no means the least objectionable (p. 2).

It is unfortunate that Mr. Brodrick did not live to review with his collaborator the joint results of their labor. As it stands the book is far from satisfactory. Every event of English history from 1801 to 1837 — political, social, economic, literary, philosophical, scientific, educational, religious, industrial or military, is at least mentioned; every member of every administration is named. Such a book does not make interesting reading. But neither does a dictionary. It may be useful, however, as a book of reference.

Life and Letters of Edwin Lawrence Godkin. Edited by Rollo Ogden, in two volumes. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1907. Vol. I, pp. 332; Vol. II, pp. 268. $4.00.

For a generation Edwin Lawrence Godkin was the national Nathan. In his hands the *Nation* was a moral irritant, even when not a prophet. Just how much our better public opinion is due to him, we shall never be quite able to estimate; but his was no small share in producing our better day. But an editor's life is not one of great dramatic interest; and the present volume will belong more to the student of politics than to the biographer. Such a statement, however, must exclude the first half of the first volume, in which we have Mr. Godkin's account of his experiences as correspondent during the Crimean War, as well as some personal letters describing the trip in the South and the founding of the *Nation*. Mr. Godkin was not such a letter-writer as was Lowell. His editorials are an editor's correspondence, but some of Mr. Godkin's letters are a step outside of his editorial opinion. They all help us to understand him and his ideals, and, what is of more historical significance, they help us to see that through the storm and stress period of the readjustment of American ideals, men of high minds were really of influence. The advice which was given him when he all but gave up the *Nation* to become professor at Harvard, shows, if nothing more, that although men like Lowell might not have been engaged in active politics, their influence through an organ of public opinion was really formative. From this angle, as well as from many another, these two volumes are a tonic. They are not gossip — a man like Mr. Godkin was above that sort of thing — they are echoes of the voice of conscience in American politics which we have been too ready to think had been drowned out by the blare of the ward politicians' brass band.

The essays of John Donaldson, M.A., LL.D., principal of the University of St. Andrews, on one of the most important of subjects, have been collected from various sources, amplified and annotated, and now appear in a volume called "Woman: Her Position and Influence in Ancient Greece and Rome, and among the Early Christians" (Longmans, $1.60 net). The attempt to realize the attitude of antiquity toward the sexes results in the broadest and most admirable charity, with a resulting amount of enlightenment for the reader. Dr. Donaldson does not believe, for example, that there was any great moral pestilence abroad in the ancient world which led to the adoption of Christianity, and he points out that the attitude of the early Church toward womankind changed materially, and hardly for the better, after the first century. It is a mild and most scholarly work, as devoid of prejudices of every sort as a book may well be.

The latest volume in the second series of American Statesmen is Theodore F. Burton's "John Sherman" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., $1.25 net). The volume traverses the heroic period of American history and might almost be described as a history of American politics from 1850 to 1900. Mr. Sherman will doubtless be chiefly remembered because of his relations to the financial history of the United States, and Mr. Burton's volume covers this matter fully. He makes it abundantly evident that in such important matters as the resumption of specie payments, the development of the treasury, the tariff, anti-trust legislation and silver, John Sherman's name is as permanently a part of the history of the nation as that of General Sherman himself. In view of the various prosecutions now being conducted under the law that bears his name, Mr. Burton's chapter upon Interstate Commerce is both interesting and important.

Colonel Clark E. Carr was present as a member of the National Cemetery Committee at the opening of the Gettysburg Cemetery. He tells of its creation and dedication in the little volume "Lincoln at Gettysburg" (A. C. McClurg & Co.). The volume contains a sincere tribute to Lincoln's Gettysburg address which to-day finds itself immortal.

Literature and Travel.

Walter Taylor Field in his little book "Fingerposts" has done a piece of work which is from every point remarkable. In this little book of 276 pages he has covered the entire field of juvenile literature, embracing the points of view of the school, the public library, the Sunday-school, and the family. Appended to it is a list of books for the Sunday-school library which ought to be in the hands of every librarian. The books are arranged according to school-grades as well as to topics, and the selection is both catholic and reasonable. An examination of the list shows that it is practically complete. It ought to govern not only Sunday-school libraries, but public libraries as well. Altogether it is a little classic bibliography for boys and girls up to college age — and for some boys and girls a good deal older (A. C. McClurg).

"Charleston: The Place and the People" (Macmillan, $2.50 net) is a delightful book and concerned with a life of which even the strictest abolitionist may admit the charm. Written by Mrs. St. Julien Ravenel, it becomes intimate with the reader immediately. It has "not the slightest pretension to be the continuous history of the

city," she announces at the beginning of her confidences, to apologize at its close for writing reminiscently. Yet there is more continuity in her narrative than in that of most annalists, for she follows the social side of life in the Carolina capital from its settlement until, its dream of metropolitan station vanished, it emerged humbled from the war between the states. It abounds in chat and little incidents, such as a well-bred woman delights to tell, and it loses nothing at the last because she is certainly not among those to be regarded as "reconstructed."

"The birthplace of the first real King of England at Wantage, the battle-grounds of Saxon and Dane, of Stephen's time, of the supporters of Parliament and of Charles the First, the stateliest home of our Kings and Queens, of England first and of the United Kingdom later, the scene of the tragedy of Amy Robsart's death, should surely satisfy any writer, were he never so avaricious of facts." So writes James Edmund Vincent of the county he celebrates in "Highways and Byways in Berkshire" (The Macmillan Co., $2 net), and one hastens to add that his readers are equally well satisfied. The book is intimate, charming, appreciative and — to an American — redolent of a delightful antiquity in which he has an ancestral share. The numerous illustrations, by Frederick L. Griggs, are in perfect accord with the letterpress.

A. S. Barnes & Co. have just published two more volumes in their highly important "Trail Makers" series. They are "The Adventures and Explorations of Samuel de Champlain," translated by Annie M. Bourne, and edited with introduction and notes by Professor Edward G. Bourne of Yale University. The volumes contain also the account of Champlain's voyage in 1603. The series to which these volumes belong has already won its way into the regard of students of American history, and these latest additions increase our obligations to the publishers. The student now has many of the original sources for the earliest American history, which were formerly to be obtained only at considerable expense and in many cases only in rare editions.

M. D. Frazar's name is known to hundreds of people who have traveled in the Frazar Parties; and there is no person better fitted to give directions for a trip abroad. In "A Practical European Guide" is gathered together in small compass more sensible suggestions for the man or woman making the first trip abroad than can be found anywhere else in the same number of pages. Advice runs from Routes to Tips. The little volume is a thesaurus of information that everybody ought to have (H. B. Turner & Co., $1).

In bringing together into a single volume, "Hawaiian Folk Tales: A Collection of Native Legends" (McClurg, $1.75 net), Thomas G. Thrum has performed a valuable service. The natives are disappearing under the fierce competition of modern civilization, and long before they pass away physically, their characteristics are changing and their traditions lapsing into oblivion through neglect. From many sources, several of them native, Mr. Thrum has made up this pleasant book, he himself adding several stories of the greatest interest. The remarkable resemblances to Old Testament narrative are pointed out in the first of the papers, contributed by the Rev. C. M. Hyde, D.D., and the book is rounded out by a glossary of native words. Sixteen photographs of the people and their islands lend value to the work.

An admirable little volume for school or the quiet hour is Professor William L. Phelps's collection of the "Essays of Robert Louis Stevenson with Introduction and Notes." (Scribner's.) The volume is far enough from being a dry-as-dust mass of annotations and the notes will help others than college students to understand and enjoy the great Scotchman.

"The Friendly Year," by Henry VanDyke (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, $1.25), is an arrangement of suitable extracts from the charming philosophy of the fisherman poet for every day in the year. It is a dainty book, full of refreshing.

Education and Text-books

Perhaps the only usual thing about Dr. Emil Reich's "Success in Life" (Duffield & Co., $1.50 net) is its title, and yet this was made necessary by his earlier "Success among Nations." Himself an educator of extended experience, Dr. Reich holds views about the bringing up of children and of their conduct in the world after they have been "brought up" to it, that are entirely rational and sound. He conducts his inquiry in a scientific manner, setting forth the constants and then the variables of success, which lies along lines of Health, Love, Honor and Power by the practice of energetics. The aim of all, as he shows in conclusion, is Authority. Morality rightly plays a leading part in all his calculations. It is not at all a conventional book and all the more interesting on that account.

Parents will welcome "Our Children," by Paul Carus, Ph.D. (Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co.). Dr. Carus brings the fruits of wide acquaintance with the philosophy of Froebel and the findings of modern child psychology and pedagogy and, in clear terms, applies them to many of the most important problems of the parent and teacher. Though one may not agree with him at all points it must be acknowledged a good thing to stir up the minds of those who are responsible for the children.

We have heard of the "cheerful liar," but here comes the cheerful teller of truth. In "Boy Wanted" (Forbes & Co., Chicago., postpaid $1.25), Nixon Waterman has solved the problem of giving live boys advice in essays which they will read. This well-made and originally arranged book, with its good illustrations, is a striking contrast to the preachments of our boyhood; and yet the sound, cheerful advice will be just as helpful to the boy.

A needed word is spoken for the boy on the brink of evil in Charles E. B. Russell's and L. M. Rigby's "The Making of the Criminal" (Macmillan, $1.25 net), in which realization is given of the poor souls who, without fault of their own, are forced into a desperate choice. The statute books and judicial and punitive methods of the civilized world have been fairly ransacked to show how countries other than Great Britain

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treat lads and youth in this, almost the saddest, problem of civilization, and it may be hoped that real reforms may follow upon its reading. The authors make the pardonable error of assuming that the United States are equally enlightened in this matter; some of the states are far behind England.

James Mark Baldwin has brought out a third and revised edition of his "Mental Development in the Child and the Race." (The Macmillan Company, $2.25 net.) Professor Baldwin's work has won a permanent place in the psychological literature of America, and for that matter, of the world. The present edition has gained value by a reworking of certain chapters.

Professor George R. Carpenter of Columbia University has prepared "English Grammar" (Macmillan, 75 cents net), which contains within the shortest possible space all that anybody need know in youth in order to speak his mother tongue correctly.

Krausz's "A B C of Motoring" is an encyclopedia of practical everyday information for everyone interested in motoring. It contains everything necessary to know, from the manufacture of a car to the art and etiquette of driving it. (Laird & Lee, $1.00.)

Krausz's "Complete Automobile Record" is a book for recording all expenses and data in reference to the care and operation of an automobile. It also contains the automobile laws of all states. (Laird & Lee, $1.00.)

Fiction

Edith Wharton's contribution to this season's literature is a magazine story issued as a novelette. "Madame de Treymes" (Scribner's, $1.25) deals with the complications which arise from the divorce laws of France, and serves to bring out in sharp relief the generosity of an American man and the schemes of a French woman. It is written with Mrs. Wharton's customary literary art, and is a capital story of the social conventions.

"The Veiled Lady and Other Men and Women" is a collection of F. Hopkinson Smith's stories (Scribner's, $1.25), and is a highly acceptable addition to that literature in which sentiment plays a genuine part. The stories are not all equally successful, but they are all the work of a born story-teller, who does not need to be melodramatic in order to be interesting.

Discriminating readers will recall that several years ago — in fact, a good many more than some of us like to realize, there appeared a story of Scotch university life, "Mona MacLean." The author, "Graham Travers," or Margaret Todd, has since that time published several volumes and in "Growth" (Holt, $1.50) she treats another phase of university life, this time that of theological students. The volume does not have quite the grip of "Mona MacLean," but this is probably because its author is dealing with matters not quite so obviously at first hand. But it is a book of real worth, and its descriptions of the church life of Scotland are convincing. Like its predecessor it has a singular power of picturing the development of character. It is the sort of novel that will appeal particularly to thoughtful readers who want something more than adventure, and particularly to those who have to any degree shared in the revolutions and temptations which come to those who find themselves immersed in new conditions and influences.

George Barr McCutcheon has published a little story called "The Flyers" (Dodd, Mead & Co., $1.25). It is a very beautiful little book with three colored portraits, and is capitally illustrated. The margin designs are striking, and the outside paper cover is very clever. The publishers are to be congratulated on the work of the University Press.

Jack London has rewritten "The Story of Ab" in his vivid fashion, which even his alarming overproduction can not quite ruin. "Before Adam" (Macmillan, $1.50) is what Mr. London chooses to regard as his recollection of his prehistoric self; that is to say, his recollection of the time when the human race was coming up through its simian ancestry. It would be unfair to describe it as a piece of plagiarism, for it is genuinely Londonesque, and would have attracted attention even if it did not bear the author's name. But Mr. London is in serious danger of becoming what he would call a literary "scab."

The trial and acquittal, through the imperfections of circumstantial evidence, of a young man of good family charged with murder, make up the thrilling point about which everything revolves in "The Unseen Jury" (Little, Brown & Co., $1.50), by Edward Clary Root. The sentiment of the book is unusually fine, the attorney for the defendant winning the girl by his honest championship of his rival.

"The Princess" is the second of Margaret Potter's trilogy, the first being "The Genius" (Harper's, $1.50). The new volume fails to justify the hope raised by its predecessor. Such elements of its plot as do not rival the less pleasant parts of "Camille" are highly improbable. The book is uninteresting and prolix. The scandalous elements of Russian life make a very different story when brought into a book like Anna Karénina and when made the unrelieved topic of discussion for nearly four hundred pages.

Three incongruous ingredients are finely mixed in Charles Egbert Craddock's "The Windfall" (Duffield, $1.50): the managers of a street fair, some wealthy southern people of social eminence, and the familiar Great Smoky Mountain moonshiners. Together they work out a plot with simple passions and crimes, some loose ends being left, and bring the handsome hero into all that the world holds of good.

John T. McCutcheon portrays the downfall of a weak but well-meaning representative to the national legislature in "Congressman Pumphrey: The People's Friend" (Bobbs-Merrill, $1.25). It is rather the people's idea of the manner in which a weak but well-intentioned countryman gets corrupted than Speaker Cannon's, and he says as much in the little introduction he writes. The pictures are in Mr. McCutcheon's best style, and the letterpress is so terse and simple that one wishes he would write more.

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Emerson Hough has done a piece of interesting work in his story of "The Outlaw" (Outing Publishing Company, $1.50 net). In it he gives a very readable account of the various "bad men" who flourished on what was once the frontier. Mr. Hough knows that these men were outlaws and dangerous members of a community, but he does not hesitate to admire such good qualities as any one of them may chance to have possessed. Altogether the volume makes an interesting footnote to American history, and, as everybody knows, footnotes are often better reading than the history itself.

What influence a number of women can have on the life of a New England village is humorously and humanely shown in "The Morning-Glory Club" (L. C. Page & Co., $1.50), by George A. Kyle. One woman, whose common sense more than compensates the reader for her lack of cultivation, brings a whole town, including its clergyman, into a wider way of thinking. The amateur theatricals of the club are as funny as possible, and there is a pretty love story, brought to a crisis through the somewhat too accurate costume worn by the heroine.

Evenly written, with little of perturbation in the flow of events, is Mrs. Ellen Olney Kirk's "Marcia" (Houghton, Mifflin, $1.50), in which the heroine writes a play with her lover, loses him to the actress who produces it, and eventually wins him back. She is a good girl, this Marcia, and she tells the story herself.

Its prelude in civil-war times, the plot working itself out through the descendants of the persons therein, with the chief interest centered in the question of black blood in a nice New Orleans girl of aristocratic French family, Mrs. M. E. M. Davis's "The Price of Silence" (Houghton, Mifflin, $1.50) is an interesting book so far as its events are concerned, and an admirable picture of creole life at its best.

The story of an actress always arouses interest, but there have been few such stories that do not give us rather too much of the nether side of theatrical life. "Felicity," by Clara E. Laughlin (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50), is an exception to this rule. It makes you think of William Black, for it is the story of the artistic temperament and its imperatives. It is not difficult to see that Miss Laughlin has drawn her material from life, and the book is convincing after it gets by the period of the little girl's childhood; there it seems a little artificial. And does Miss Laughlin really know the theater?

The study of Kentucky rural life made by Eliza Calvert Hall in "Aunt Jane of Kentucky" (Little, Brown & Co., $1.50) is as pleasantly interpretative of character as any book of sketches recently written. An old lady tells what happened when she was younger, no small part of it being concerned with the church in the little town. Masculine frailties, viewed with charitable eyes, twinkle through Aunt Jane's merry tales, which are written well enough to deserve the largest reading.

Miss Anna Chapin Ray has undertaken a work more ambitious than ordinary in "Ackroyd of the Faculty" (Little, Brown & Co., $1.50). It is a well wrought novel. A workingman's son wins his way into the teaching body of a great university through his mother's self-denial, and is brought for the first time into contact with the life of comfortable, cultivated, and well-bred people. Without surrendering anything of his own dignity or personality, he contrives to hold his own through many discouragements, and is rewarded by the love of a charming girl. It is a good book.

Another literary drama is added to the list, in Ridgely Torrence's "Abelard and Heloise" (Scribner's, $1.25 net). It is a workmanlike rendering of one of the most famous and most tragical of the world's love stories, with an occasional purple patch to show the dramatist's poetic skill, and a deferred climax in every curtain in obedience to the limitations of the Elizabethan stage. The last act, with the fearful rebuke of his guilty parents by the child of their love and Abelard's excommunication and death, is quite too crowded with incident, yet here, too, the final curtain falls too late for modern usages. If we are to have a literary drama, why not have it as distinctly of its own age as Shakespeare's was?

Edgar Saltus does not have purple patches in his writing; it is all purple, occasionally showing threadbare. In "The Lords of the Ghostland" (Mitchell Kinnerley, $1.25 net), dealing with the great religions and gods of the ancient and modern world, he has a field peculiarly fitted for his particular methods of treatment. But he goes out of his way to be flippant, and the result is an exhibition of bad taste, such as he is rarely guilty of. It also affects the sincerity of his work, greatly to its marring. The book, after the gods of the ancient world, including the Jehovah of the Hebrews, culminates in Christ, as is fitting; making the insincerity and tinsel of it all the more to be deplored.

Scoundrelly cattle thieves, an honest state's attorney, a ranchman who will put up with no more nonsense, and two very pretty girls, one of them a cattleman's daughter, the other a court stenographer, make up the persons of "Langford of the Three Bars" (McClurg, $1.50), a book filled with the spirit and excitement of the plains, but instinct with love for law and order.

Last summer Mr. George Ade went to Europe and down into Egypt. His impressions were published by a syndicate of American newspapers, and now, illustrated with supposedly funny pictures, are put out in book form in "In Pastures New" (McClure, Phillips & Co., New York).

Ellis Parker Butler, who won immortality in his "Pigs are Pigs," has issued another collection of farcical stories, "Mr. Perkins of Portland" (H. B. Turner & Co., $1). The stories deal with the advertising business. They are often funny.

First of a new series of books for little girls to be called "The Two Little Friends" and written by Mrs. Margaret Sidney is "Two Little Friends in Norway" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., $1.50). It is concerned with the wanderings of an American family in the northland, where the little daughter, seven years old, meets and grows fond of a little Norse girl of her own age. After a little bit of romance, the two made ready for the United States, and the curtain falls on a pleasant and healthy little play.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Deaths. — April 15. — James H. Eckels, ex-comptroller of the currency, aged forty-eight.

— May 8.— Edmund G. Ross, ex-governor of New Mexico, and former United States senator from Kansas, who was ostracized for voting against the impeachment of President Andrew Johnson.

Education.— April 26.— John D. Rockefeller gave to the University of Chicago land valued at $2,000,000.

—May 9.—Princeton University received $1,200,000 from unnamed donor.

Governor.— April 18.— Governor Hagerman of New Mexico resigned, and President Roosevelt appointed George Curry as successor.

Jamestown Exposition.— April 26.— The tercentennial exposition at Jamestown, Virginia, opened by President Roosevelt.

Labor.— May 6.— Labor crisis in San Francisco. No street cars running. Telephone service suspended. Union iron works closed.

— May 9.— The trial of William D. Haywood of the Western Federation of Miners, for the alleged murder of Governor Steunenberg of Idaho, was begun.

Land Frauds.— April 19.— Thomas M. Huntington, Ami B. Todd and Fred Hoyt, convicted in the United States Court at Omaha of conspiracy to defraud the government of about half a million acres of public lands in Sheridan and Cherry counties, Nebraska.

Local Option.— May 7. — The Illinois local-option bill finally passed by the state legislature.

Peace Congress.— April 15.— The first National Arbitration and Peace Congress met in New York city.

— April 17.— Andrew Carnegie presented with the cross of the Legion of Honor by France in recognition of his efforts for peace.

Philanthropy.— April 23.— Miss Anna T. Jeanes, of Philadelphia, gave $1,000,000 to assist rural schools for negroes. She appointed Booker T. Washington and Hollis Burke Frissell trustees.

Prohibition.— April 24.— Nine breweries ousted from Kansas by order of the Supreme Court, as they violated the prohibitory law.

Railroads.— April 13.—[See Rebates.]— April 18.—The New York State Assembly passed, with but one dissenting vote, the bill providing for a flat rate of 2 cents a mile on all railroads in the state....Governor Warner of Michigan signed the 2-cent fare bill which becomes effective in September. It applies to all lower peninsula roads earning more than $1,200 per mile per year on passenger trains. Other roads 3 cents.

—April 19.— The Great Northern Railway announced that it would accept without change the 2-cent passenger fare law and the commodity freight law.

Rebates.— April 13.— The Standard Oil Company of Indiana found guilty of accepting rebates from the Chicago & Alton Railroad on 1,463 counts.

— April 29.—The United States Circuit Court of Appeals in St. Paul upheld the judgment of the Federal District Court in fining the Armour, Swift, Morris and Cudahy packing companies $15,000 each for taking railroad rebates.

Traction.— April 18.— The Supreme Court of Illinois declared unconstitutional the certificate provision of the so-called Mueller law, under which a way was provided for the purchase by Chicago of surface transportation systems.

Porto Rico

Governor.— April 18.— Regis H. Post inaugurated governor in succession to Beekman Winthrop, who retired to become assistant secretary of the treasury at Washington.

Mexico

Earthquake.— April 15.— Chilpancingo, the capital of the State of Guerrero, and Chilapa, twenty-six miles northeast, ruined by earthquake; nearly one hundred persons killed.

— April 17.— Ayutla also destroyed.

Santo Domingo

Treaty.— May 3.— The new treaty with the United States ratified by the Dominican Congress.

British Empire

Deaths.— April 15.— James Clark Hook, artist and Royal Academician, aged eighty-eight.

— May 6.— John Watson (Ian Maclaren) novelist and clergyman, aged fifty-seven.

Irish Exposition.— May 3.— The international exhibition opened.

Parliament.— May 7.— The Irish bill introduced by the government. [See Events.] In the House of Lords Lord Cawdor's proposal for the appointment of a committee to consider suggestions for the reform of the House was adopted.

India

Plague.— April 13.— For the week ending with this date there were seventy-five thousand deaths from the plague. Since 1897 there have been nearly one million five hundred thousand deaths from it.

Riots.— May 3.— Serious anti-European and anti-Christian riots at Rawalpindi, Punjaub. Mission and Y. M. C. A. buildings looted.

— May 6.— Rioting at various places in eastern Bengal owing to intense feeling between Hindus and Mohammedans, the former claiming the latter have desecrated their temples while the Mohammedans assert that the Hindu boycott of British goods has raised prices.

—May 10.—Political unrest assuming grave proportions in Lahore. A revolutionary leader arrested.

France

Casualty.— April 12.— The senatorial commission appointed to investigate the cause of the

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explosion on board the battle-ship Jena reported it due to decomposition of "B" powder.

Labor.— April 23.— Three thousand bakers on strike in Paris march to the Madeleine, but are dispersed by the police.

—May 1.—The labor demonstration in Paris resulted in one thousand arrests and scores of persons injured.

Treaty.— May 7.— The new Franco-Japanese treaty officially confirmed.

Spain

Elections.— April 22.— Elections for members of the Chamber of Deputies showed a sweeping victory for the Conservatives, who secured 260 seats. The Liberals gained sixty-three, Republicans and Catalonists fifty, and other active parties thirty-one seats.

Crown Prince.—May 10.—A son and heir born to the King of Spain.

Belgium

Cabinet.— April 12.— The cabinet resigned after a defeat in the chamber, which adopted a bill fixing nine hours as the period of labor in the mines.

Labor Bill.— April 13.— King Leopold by royal decree withdrew the government bill relating to the hours of labor in the mines. The action unprecedented because the decree was countersigned by the ministers who had officially resigned.

German Empire

Aeronauts.— April 12.— A remarkable balloon record of 812 miles in nineteen hours made by two German aeronauts, Dr. Wegener and Adolph Koch. They sailed from Berlin to Enderby, near Leicester, England, in that time.

Austria

Deaths.— April 26.— Albert Ritter von Mosetig-Morhof, surgeon and introducer of iodoform, aged sixty-nine.

Turkish Empire

American Schools.— May 3.— An imperial irade issued authorizing the ministers to take action in regard to the American schools and other questions pending with the United States.

Rebellion.— May 6.— Seven battalions of Turkish troops practically annihilated in a battle with rebels in the province of Yemen, Turkish Arabia.

Montenegro

Cabinet.— April 18.— A new cabinet formed under the premiership of M. Tomanovics, president of the high court of justice. He will also be minister of foreign affairs and of justice.

— April 29.— The ministry resigned but Prince Nicholas did not accept their resignations. Radical newspapers attacked the government and supporters of the latter demolished the offices of the papers.

Revolt.— April 29.— Rural tribes in revolt against Prince Nicholas, whom they accuse of infringement of the constitution; three thousand met in southern Montenegro and resolved to send a deputation to the capital to demand reform and the dismissal of the ministry.

Russian Empire

Assassination.— April 21.— The vice-governor of the prison at Rostov-on-Don shot dead on the street.

— April 24.— The chief of the political prison at Odessa killed by terrorists.

Casualty.— April 21.— Thirty-one persons lost their lives by the foundering of the river steamer Archangelsk while crossing the river Neva.

Douma.— April 12.— A demand for the exclusion from the lower house of three Socialist deputies pending their trial for political offenses, submitted by the minister of justice. It raised a storm of protest, and was finally referred to a committee, action opposed by the government and the Socialists. Premier Stolypin requested that meetings with experts should be held in private apartments, as the admittance of private persons to the lower house was illegal.

— April 13.— Guards prevented the entrance of experts into the douma building. The lower house agreed to a compromise.

— April 24.— Senator Akymoff appointed president of the council of the empire.

— April 29.— Accusation of the army as worthless by a Socialist member brought a demand from the ministers for temporary suspension of the member unless he retracted his charge. The lower house refused to comply, but President Golovine pronounced the suspension and rebuked the member.

— May 2.— The council of the empire — the upper house — adopted the recruiting bill and the bill appropriating $3,000,000 for famine relief, passed by the lower house April 30.

Navy.— April 15.— Rear-Admiral Nebogatoff, who was sentenced to death for surrendering the Russian Pacific squadron at the battle of the Sea of Japan, began the imprisonment of ten years to which the sentence was commuted.

Japan

Navy.— April 15.— The largest battle-ship in the world, the Aki, launched.

Chinese Empire

Casualty.— May 2.— An explosion of the powder magazine at the arsenal in Canton caused the death of twenty-nine persons and the injury of many others. Fifteen buildings destroyed.

Manchuria.— April 15.— Evacuation by both Russians and Japanese completed.

Morocco

French Occupation.— April 17.— The French fleet made a demonstration off Mogador in order to hasten action on the police reforms arranged by the Algeciras conference.

— April 22.— The Sultan replied to the French demand for indemnity by asking negotiation.

— May 6.— Southern part of the country in rebellion. The people of Morocco City proclaimed Mulai Hafig, brother of the reigning Sultan, to be Sultan of Morocco. Mulai released prisoners from the jail, restored the old governor of the city and arrested the murderer of Dr. Mauchamp.

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For Biscuits that Melt in the Mouth

¶ Armour's "Simon Pure" Leaf Lard is the shortening. There is no "soggy" cookery where it is rightly used. Isn't that a fact worth considering? One cupful of poor shortening can spoil enough pastry to pay for a whole pail of "Simon Pure.' Then think of the personal satisfaction and keen delight in getting biscuits and pastry so perfectly shortened that they literally melt in the mouth!

¶ Armour's "Simon Pure" Leaf Lard is sold in government sealed tin pails (threes, fives and tens).

Armour's "VERIBEST" Meats comply ab- United States Meat Inspection and Pure nourishing and 100 per cent pure. More product of the ARMOUR Method—that good" but better than any food law requires,

Veribest

OX TONGUE

SUGGESTIONS

The slices of cold Tongue may be laid in a circle overlapping one another and the center filled with nasturtium blossoms; serve with sauce Tartare, French or Mayonnaise Dressing.

The cold Tongue may be sliced and put in a brick-shaped mold with capers, chopped olives and red peppers. Fill the mold with a pint of clear consomme to which has been added a tablespoonful of granulated gelatine dissolved in hot water. Pour the jelly over the Tongue and put away to harden.

PORK and BEANS

SUGGESTIONS

Veribest Beans may be used for making various soups, particularly Baked Bean Soup.

They may be used for a salad and served with Sliced Ox Tongue.

Baked Bean Sandwiches may be made of them and served hot or cold.

They may be cooked with various ***Veribest*** Deviled or Potted Meats in the chafing dish.

Bean Croquettes may be served with any one of the Canned ***Veribest*** Sausages or Loaf Goods.

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¶ Tender, sweet, delicious ham that "makes your mouth water,"—that's Armour's "Star" Ham. A better ham may be produced some day. Nothing is impossible. We'll do it if we can. But a *better* ham *never has been* produced, nor a ham so good as Armour's "Star.' It's a *special.* Only *selected* hams are "Star" branded. They are then given a special mild cure. The result is delicacy of quality and flavor to be found only in Armour's "Star" Hams—"The Ham What Am."

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solutely with the standards fixed by the Food Laws—they are clean, wholesome, than that, "VERIBEST" meats are the means "Top Notch Quality," not "just as not only "fit to eat" but "good to eat."

-Meats

BRISKET BEEF

SUGGESTIONS

The brisket is considered the very best cut for corning. Canned *Veribest* Brisket Beef may be used in all the many ways corned beef is employed, hot or cold.

It may be used in all sorts of hashes, or chopped mixed with cream sauce and served on toast.

It may be chopped, mixed with tomato, celery or mushroom sauce, and bread crumbs and scalloped.

It may be cut in small pieces and with mashed potato made into a Cottage pie; or sliced and cooked with onions and tomatoes to make Beef Spanish.

POTTED HAM

SUGGESTIONS

The Potted Ham may be used for making sandwiches, forcemeat, quenelles, etc.

It may be used for stuffing tomatoes, cucumbers, squash, egg plant, onions, etc.

It may be used, mixed with bread crumbs or chestnuts, for the stuffing of turkey, grouse, chicken, and particularly quail and duck.

It may be used for making canapes and for stuffed eggs.

It may be most successfully used wherever a recipe calls for a finely minced, well seasoned meat, either alone or mixed with others.

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¶ Crisp, juicy, savory, appetizing and nourishing. It strengthens the arm while it satisfies the palate. A stimulant to the hunger which it appeases. Such is ARMOUR'S Star Bacon. Choice, evenly cured and thinly sliced, tender and juicy—with fat and lean evenly balanced—the kind that does not cook dry and stringy; every slice tastes like more. Doctors recommend Bacon because it is a valuable food and so easily digested. Try Armour's Star Bacon put up in glass jars or tins; the Star Brand guarantees quality—marks the best Bacon on the market and Uniformity.

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¶ Rich, meaty, wholesome, and palate-tempting soups—soups that nourish and delight, without overheating—are best made with Armour's Extract of Beef. It imparts that savory quality, without which soups are insipid, because it is the best extract of the best beef—a pure, wholesome, concentrated stock packed in convenient jars for household use.

¶ It is also invaluable to the housewife for restoring the original juices and flavor to recooked meats, and giving vegetables a snap and flavor obtained in no other way.

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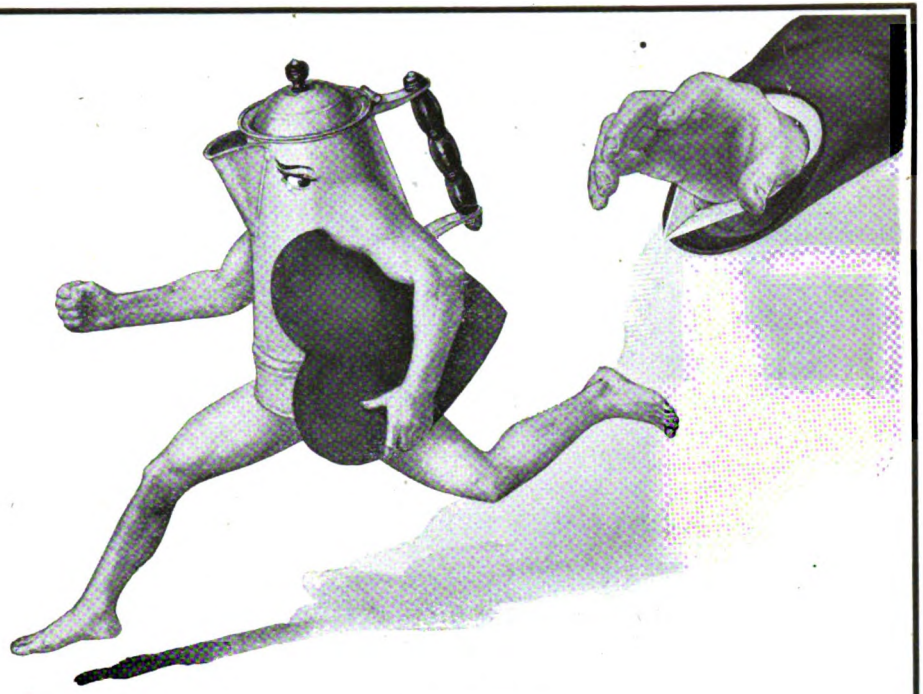

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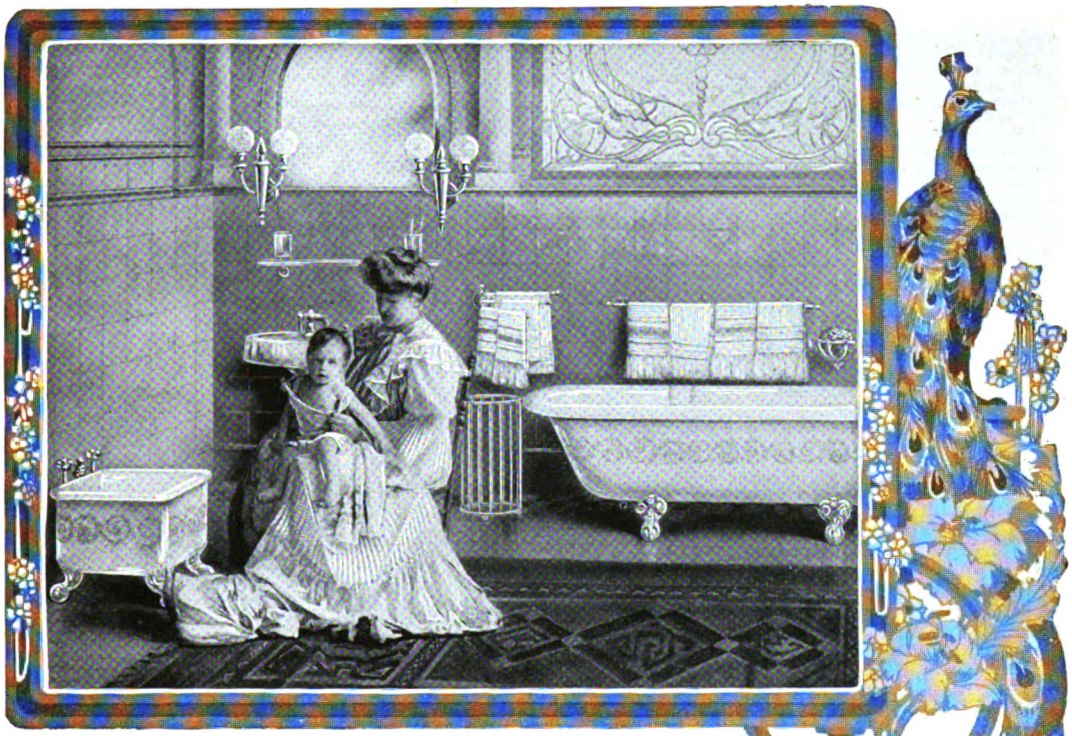

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